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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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WHAT THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS ARE DOING TO HELP WIN THE WAR

GREAT changes in the activities of the secondary schools of the United States have been made since war was declared four months ago. Almost as a unit the schools have responded to the challenge to participate as fully as possible in helping the nation win the war. Whatever has been considered a contribution to the war objectives, that the schools have been eager to undertake.

This transition on the part of the secondary schools to a war status was not difficult to effect. For many months before the declaration of war, the personnel of the schools had been keyed to a high pitch. The ideals basic to the nation's existence were threatened by ruthless leaders. That freedom-loving youth could view without deep concern the struggle going on throughout the Eastern Hemisphere, in which peace-loving peoples were being robbed of their liberty, could scarcely be expected, even by the most ardent advocates of appeasement. As a result the response of the entire personnel of the secondary schools to the treacherous attack of December 7 was electric.

The immediate problem confronting every principal, teacher, and pupil was, "What can we do, individually and collectively, to help the nation win the war?" Fortunately many defense activities were already being carried on in numerous secondary schools. In these

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schools immediate co-operation became an accomplished fact. In other schools anxious workers quickly initiated plans designed to contribute to the total war effort.

Evidence of the willingness and readiness of the secondary schools to serve the nation in meeting the emergency has been noted in the columns of the public press, which has reported many of the innovative activities of the school personnel. Analysis of newspaper clippings and of direct reports to the writer from a large number of secondary schools reveals eight types of responses which the schools are making to meet the problems presented by the war.

I. NEW OFFERINGS IN THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES

Many new courses designed specifically to meet defense needs and to provide types of training which are in great demand by war agencies have been added to the secondary-school offerings. Some of these additions made their appearance during the past year and a half in response to the need for increased national defense. Among these additions are courses supplementary to employment in defense industries in skilled and semiskilled work and courses to prepare out-of-school youth and N.Y.A. enrollees for admission to intensive defense training. According to a news release of the United States Office of Education, more than 11,000 schools have participated in providing such courses, and more than 1,600,000 students have benefited from the training offered.

a) Typical of these new additions to the secondary-school program are the five types of defense courses provided by the Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights, Illinois:

(1) In-school courses, such as vocational classes in machine-tool operation, welding, pattern-making, automobile mechanics, drafting, quantity food production, home nursing. Approximately one-half of all boys in school are enrolled in vocational courses leading directly into defense jobs. Several of these courses are reimbursed under the Smith-Hughes law.

(2) Courses in which the National Youth Administration and the school cooperate in a program of production and related training for two hundred out-of-school youths. The facilities of the school and of the new \$86,000 standard N.Y.A. work-experience center, located on the school grounds adjacent to the school building, are used for this program. This program is financed in its entirety by the federal government. Training is given in the following fields: ma-

chine-tool operation, arc and gas welding, sheet-metal work, hand forging, radio assembly, power sewing, and gas-engine mechanics.

(3) Night courses for adults, such as (a) ground school under the auspices of the Civil Aeronautics Administration, in which sixty carefully selected trainees are receiving instruction; (b) fifteen college-level engineering courses enrolling 350 high-school graduates and taught by specialists selected from industry; and (c) supplementary courses in machine-tool operation, welding, and blueprint for two hundred men engaged on defense jobs who desire to "upgrade" themselves. All the expense of operation of these courses is met from federal funds. These classes meet in the high-school building from 6:00 P.M. to 9:00 P.M. and overflow into the N.Y.A. shop from 9:00 P.M. to 3:00 A.M.

(4) Saturday-morning apprentice training for twenty-five youths selected by industry for specialized training leading to supervisory responsibilities. Half of the expense of this program is met by Smith-Hughes appropriations.

(5) A comprehensive program of school and home projects by the Vocational Agricultural Department, reaching adults as well as youths. The agriculture boys make soil tests, grade seed, and raise blooded chicks, and also carry on a shop course in farm mechanics and tractor operation and repair. A farmers' evening school, at which the average attendance this year has been eighty adults, is held weekly.

Examples of recent additions to the curriculum in other high schools are:

b) A new course in the Bulkeley High School, Hartford, Connecticut, designed to prepare young men for the apprenticeship school conducted by the Pratt and Whitney Aircraft Corporation, in which specialized training is provided for junior executive and supervisory positions.

c) A course in foods for Senior boys, a course in home nursing for Senior girls, and first-aid courses leading to the Red Cross first-aid certificate, in the George Rogers Clark School, Hammond, Indiana.

d) Courses in Spanish, history of Latin America, radio, economics, conservation of natural resources, and consumers' education, in the La Salle-Peru Township High School and Junior College, La Salle, Illinois.

e) A course for air pilots, which has already produced twenty-seven licensed pilots, in the Thornton Township High School and Junior College, Harvey, Illinois.

f) A course in blueprint-reading for the second semester of the current school year for pupils who do not have time to take courses in the industrial-arts department but who desire some technical

information has been planned by the New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois.

g) A course in signaling for a selected group of boys from the Reserve Officers' Training Corps is offered in the West High School, Rockford, Illinois. This course will qualify boys as operators in the military service.

h) Both vocational and nonvocational offerings are being planned in New York City high schools to prepare pupils for defense activities and industries and to provide them with types of instruction recognized as useful and as possessing practical value if and when military service is entered by many of the boys. Among the vocational courses are instrument-making, aviation mechanics, aviation sheet-metal work, electrical work, electric motors, heat treatment of metals, machine-tool operation, radio, sheet-metal work, ship carpentry, ship-rigging, tool and die making, and welding. Nonvocational courses are provided in principles of food conservation and nutrition, safety and first aid, meteorology, elementary topography and map-making, principles of radio-instrument construction, radio communication and code practice, gas and Diesel engines, elementary mechanical drawing, elementary blueprint making and reading, and advanced mechanical drawing.

2. SHIFT OF EMPHASIS IN ESTABLISHED COURSES

The influence of defense activities has been noticed in many of the established courses in the secondary-school curriculum. The large-scale participation of teachers and pupils in war activities has created problems which are projected into the regular classroom work to such an extent that a shift in emphasis has inevitably resulted. Examples of this new emphasis are:

a) In chemistry, the nature of chemical warfare and the means of combating it (East High School, Aurora, Illinois).

b) In physics, greater consideration given to electricity and aeronautics (Senior High School, Hannibal, Missouri, and Senior High School, Whiting, Indiana).

c) In industrial arts, the construction of games for the use of men in the military camps (New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois).

d) In hygiene, health maintenance and diet (Senior High School, Hannibal, Missouri).

e) In social studies, sensible discussion of world-affairs (Senior High School, Hannibal, Missouri).

f) In physiology, first aid and home nursing (Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois).

g) In mathematics, applications to problems encountered in the Army, Navy, Air Corps, and defense industries (West High School, Rockford, Illinois).

h) In agriculture, maintenance and repair of farm equipment (Genoa Township High School, Genoa, Illinois).

i) In physical education, body-building calisthenics (George Rogers Clark School, Hammond, Indiana).

3. SPEEDING UP INSTRUCTION TO SAVE TIME FOR THE PUPIL AND TO MAKE POSSIBLE EARLIER COM- PLETION OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

Whether leaders in secondary education believe in acceleration or not, they have been strongly urged by the American Council on Education to speed up the education of students of ability so that these promising pupils may graduate from college before they are called by the Selective Service Act. One of the reasons given for this recommendation is the fact that many high-school and college boys are leaving school to enlist in the armed forces or to take jobs at good salaries.

The *New York Times* reports the following statement made by the president of the American Council on Education, George F. Zook.

While we are speeding up the making of planes, tanks, and ships, and the training of Army and Navy officers, . . . we must speed up educational processes so that we can get our youth, especially the able ones, through high school and college by the time they are twenty.

We have been wasting too much time. There is no doubt that thousands of our more intelligent young men and women can go through high school and college in six or seven years.

The following are some of the types of speeding-up which are being attempted by secondary schools.

a) Bulkeley High School, Hartford, Connecticut, to encourage high-ranking Juniors to enter college at the end of the Junior year in

order that they may complete their college education before they reach the draft age, offers to award such Juniors their high-school diplomas after they have satisfactorily completed their first year's work in college. Seniors who leave at the end of three and a half years to volunteer in the armed services are awarded their high-school diplomas at the time of withdrawal.

b) George Rogers Clark School, Hammond, Indiana, reports that, in anticipation of changes in college courses, the administration and faculty "have begun to bear down especially in college-preparatory courses so that the students can enter college at an earlier date without having missed any work."

c) Genoa Township High School, Genoa, Illinois, reports that, rather than hold school on Saturdays in order to close the year a few weeks early, pupils who need to miss some days of school or to leave school early in the spring for farm or factory work are permitted, in advance of absence, to "make up" the work to be missed.

d) Glenbard Township High School, Glen Ellyn, Illinois, plans to excuse after May 1 Seniors, in particular, who are doing good work and who can establish the fact that they have jobs in essential industries or on farms.

e) New York City high schools as a step toward speeding the graduation of pupils, particularly those who plan to enter college, are authorized to return to a former practice of permitting pupils who obtain an average of 75 per cent in their studies to carry five instead of the customary four major subjects. The intention of this authorization is twofold: (1) to make it possible to induce a considerable number of pupils to remain in school and complete their course before going to work and (2) to permit a large number of boys who are going to college to accelerate their progress through the high school and thereby facilitate the completion of their college work before they are called to military service.

f) The Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights, Illinois, has arranged for short and irregular schedules for pupils who can secure employment in factories. On January 15, 1942 such pupils were employed on regular eight-hour shifts. Beginning with the second semester of 1942, all classes in vocational agriculture were shifted to the afternoon. When spring planting time arrives, these classes will

be dismissed. The programs of all pupils who live on farms are organized on a half-day basis if a request for this arrangement is made by parents.

4. WIDER USE OF THE SCHOOL BY THE COMMUNITY

The active participation in war activities has created new demands on secondary schools for the wider use of school facilities. These demands have come both from pupils enrolled in the schools and from adult members of the communities served by the schools. The evidence available indicates that secondary-school leaders have not discouraged this wider use of the schools. Examples already given reveal the extended use being made of school facilities in some communities. A few additional examples will serve to emphasize the importance of the part being played by secondary schools in the total war program:

a) In the Whiting Senior High School, Whiting, Indiana, machine shops are operating on a twenty-four-hour basis, with defense-training classes on all-night shifts.

b) At the Bulkeley High School, Hartford, Connecticut, the machine shop is used by N.Y.A. youths from 3:00 P.M. to 6:00 P.M. and by adults from 7:00 P.M. to 10:00 P.M., all being engaged in defense training.

c) Pupils of the George Rogers Clark School, Hammond, Indiana, who have completed the required subjects for graduation and whose classes can be scheduled during morning hours are allowed and encouraged to take defense training in the afternoon or evening at Technical Vocational School, Hammond, Indiana.

d) At Fort Dodge, Iowa, the high-school building has been opened to all kinds of night classes for adults, including first-aid classes. The school is helping to support public-forum programs, and the building is available for all public forums.

e) At Genoa Township High School, Genoa, Illinois, the farm shop may be used by local farmers for repair work.

f) At Las Vegas, Nevada, the high-school building is used for Red Cross, Women's Ambulance Corps, Civil Aeronautics Administration ground school, athletics for soldiers, nutrition classes, and other defense classes.

g) Federal defense engineering classes and other federal defense classes are conducted after regular school hours in the La Salle-Peru Township High School and Junior College, La Salle, Illinois. During the summer vacation these classes meet both during the day and during the evening.

h) The Board of Education of New York City has placed its after-school facilities at the disposal of the police department for use as training centers for air-raid wardens. It is the policy of the school board to meet any request for rooms transmitted to it by air-raid wardens through the police department. Through the co-operation of the custodial division and the community division, facilities in 115 schools have been provided without charge.

5. LOCAL PROTECTIVE MEASURES PROMOTED THROUGH THE SCHOOLS

In assuming a responsibility for the protection of the community, the school may be regarded by some persons as accepting an entirely new role. However, such is not the case, since the school has frequently led the community in movements to safeguard the public welfare. The participation of the school in the war program has merely enlarged its protective activities in behalf of the community.

Reports from widely scattered secondary schools reveal that the pupils and the faculty members are prepared to render protective services, such as extinguishing fires, rendering first aid, doing home nursing, preparing air-raid shelters, giving training in health maintenance and diet, performing life-saving services, working toward conservation of resources, and the like. Specific examples of a few of these services are:

a) The East High School, Aurora, Illinois, reports that its chemistry teacher has been sent to Aberdeen, Maryland, for a two weeks' course in the handling of bombs of all types. On his return he will instruct local firemen and police in the techniques desired. His expenses were paid by the local Defense Council, and the salary of the substitute during his absence was met by the Board of Education.

b) Every boy in the classes in high-school and college chemistry in the Fort Dodge High School, Fort Dodge, Iowa, is preparing to render service in fire control.

c) The boys of the Las Vegas High School, Las Vegas, Nevada,

serve as assistant air-raid marshals and black-out wardens in the blocks in which they reside.

d) The Community High School, Marengo, Illinois, has organized a defense council to co-operate with all branches of the United States Office of Civilian Defense, from national down to local branches, in developing and giving assistance in the defense program.

e) The defense committee of the student council and faculty of the New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois, keeps in touch with community groups in order to make sure that the school and these groups work together for a common purpose.

f) The West High School, Aurora, Illinois, offers a canteen course to train women in the community to feed large groups in case of emergency.

6. CONTRIBUTING TO THE MAINTENANCE OF SCHOOL AND HOME MORALE

The secondary school in most communities reaches more homes in a direct and intimate way than does any other social institution. The youth who attends the school brings to the members of his family the currents of thought and the attitudes of mind of the school head and faculty. If these thoughts and attitudes are wholesome and sound, the influence on the members of the family is stabilizing and uplifting. Thus the school contributes to the maintenance of home morale.

That school leaders are not unmindful of their influence in the formation of community opinion on public questions is shown by the efforts being made in the schools to cultivate school and community relations. Some of these efforts are directed toward the effective co-ordination of the war activities undertaken by the school and the community; others, toward the sharing of school resources with the members of the community who desire to utilize these advantages.

The nature of the contribution of the secondary schools toward the maintenance of morale in wartime is aptly illustrated by practices such as the following:

a) In La Porte, Indiana, the all-school committee on defense has issued a list of suggestions to indicate to teachers in each department of the secondary schools how they may most effectively co-operate with the total war effort. It is hoped that the indirect effect of these

suggestions on school and home morale will be constructive and wholesome. The following list of eighteen suggestions was prepared for the social-studies department.

- (1) Stimulate lively discussions of current events.
- (2) Develop a thorough understanding of the nature of democracy—its origins, history, achievements, problems, and values.
- (3) Teach the importance of hemispheric solidarity.
- (4) Help pupils to see and feel their part in this national emergency.
- (5) Make certain that there is a "participating citizenship" and democracy in action in each classroom and in the school system.
- (6) Stress respect and love for national emblems, and instill patriotism.
- (7) Develop a spirit of co-operation, tolerance, and a willingness to sacrifice in the interest of the common good.
- (8) Continue to teach the basic principles and facts of American history, government, and geography.
- (9) Show how democracy betters other forms of government.
- (10) Teach the dangers to democracy from without and within.
- (11) Teach the problems of organizing industrial and economic resources for defense.
- (12) Teach the importance of conservation of our natural resources.
- (13) Teach pupils the importance of getting reliable information in order that they may not be upset by idle or malicious propaganda.
- (14) Teach pupils to anticipate what post-war problems are likely to confront us.
- (15) Emphasize in instruction the development of proper attitudes and techniques of learning as well as factual information.
- (16) Provide opportunities for training effective techniques of group discussion, group criticism, and group decision.
- (17) Teach the issues and aims of the war.
- (18) Provide opportunities to stress the courage and fortitude of our forefathers against much greater odds.

b) The superintendent of schools of Hammond, Indiana, Lee L. Caldwell, has issued the following instructions to his school principals to impress upon them the importance of maintaining good school morale.

The chief morale officer in each school should be the principal, whose duty is to exhibit such calmness, confidence, and discipline that confusion or panic will not occur. The morale officer should have assistants, who might be teachers or older students, who should be ready to aid and console individuals showing signs of hysteria or weakness.

To help create and preserve an atmosphere of poise, calm, and confidence is a most important duty and service. There must be stern realism. There must be

resolution. Above all, there must be loyalty. But nervousness and undue excitement and anxiety must be avoided. Unfortunately much that we hear on the radio and read in the daily press is hurriedly assembled and disseminated. Under such circumstances unverified reports are frequently given currency. There is need for a careful, thoughtful weighing of the significance of developments.

c) In West High School, Rockford, Illinois, the responsibility for maintaining good morale rests largely with the International Committee. The purpose of this committee is to stimulate the interest of the entire student body in the life and culture of our hemisphere neighbors and those countries associated with us in the world-struggle. At this writing the following concentrated program featuring either a country or a group of countries each week has been planned for a four- or six-week period.

(1) The library will have an attractive display of reading material. Bibliographies will be sent to the departments for distribution.

(2) Exhibits will be placed in the lower hall and in all exhibit cases throughout the buildings.

(3) A variety of programs will be given by the pupils over the public-address system to call attention to the exhibit.

(4) Large maps of particular areas will be displayed, on which the military or strategic points of interest at the time will be marked by thumbtacks.

(5) A feature article will be run each week in the school paper.

(6) An assembly program, including a travelogue, pictures, folk dances, and music, will be held.

(7) Available radio programs will be heard over the public-address system, and slides will be shown in the classroom.

(8) School clubs will be asked to co-operate in their bi-monthly programs.

(9) New units on Latin-American and Pacific relations will be introduced into the courses of study, or existing units will be enriched.

d) Immediately after war was declared, the principal and the student council of East High School, Aurora, Illinois, worked out a ten-point program which is intended to assist in maintaining school morale. The program has been printed on a large poster which is hung in every classroom. The following are the ten points.

(1) Stay in school. Make every minute count—time is important.

(2) Protect school property and supplies. We may find it difficult to get supplies in the future.

(3) Don't waste anything. Put all wastepaper in baskets. It is needed for defense. Turn lights out when not needed.

(4) Be careful with books, clothes, pens, etc. These things cost money, and Dad will have all he can do to pay his share of our defense costs.

- (5) Get an after-school job if possible. It will help Dad and country. However, do not let job interfere with good school work.
- (6) Be careful of your health. Develop training rules.
- (7) Help Mother. Her load is heavy.
- (8) Girls, form units in the Red Cross for knitting and first aid.
- (9) Read the newspaper—read good books—listen to the radio. This will help you understand this struggle for freedom.
- (10) Buy defense stamps and bonds.

7. CONTRIBUTING TO THE MAINTENANCE OF SOLDIER MORALE

There is scarcely a secondary school that does not have its honor roll of members who participated in the World War in 1917-18. Records were kept by the schools of the war activities of their members. This practice should be encouraged at present and should be continued until the conclusion of the war.

The pupils can and should do more for their associates and for the alumni than merely keeping records. They should give cheer and encouragement to their fighters in the trenches, on the seas, and in the air. A mere listing of appropriate activities which are being carried on very generally in secondary schools is sufficient to indicate the positive contribution which pupils in secondary schools can make to soldier morale:

- a) Writing letters to members of the American forces who represent the local school and community.
- b) Sending the school paper to all alumni of the local school who are engaged in military services.
- c) Remembering these alumni with occasional school souvenirs and gifts.
- d) Contributing magazines and books for the use of the men in training camps.
- e) Assisting in entertainment of soldiers in local camps, under proper sponsorship.
- f) Giving appropriate publicity to the valorous deeds of local alumni.

8. PARTICIPATION OF PUPILS IN GENERAL DEFENSE ACTIVITIES

The following selected examples reveal the extent of pupil participation in the general defense activities now being carried on in secondary schools.

a) The Community High School, St. Charles, Illinois, has adopted the following eight-point program of defense activities:

- (1) Campaign of conservation—paper, etc.
- (2) Weekly period for sale of defense stamps.
- (3) Required physical-fitness classes for all boys.
- (4) Red Cross home-nursing classes for all Junior and Senior girls.
- (5) Evening school classes in physical fitness for all men out of school.
- (6) Evening school classes in home nursing.
- (7) Assembly speakers on the issues in the war.
- (8) Musical organizations assisting in community morale programs.

b) An activity classified as general and miscellaneous by the Wyandotte High School, Kansas City, Kansas, is the sale of defense stamps and bonds on each Tuesday. Other items are: promotion of all Red Cross war relief drives, instruction in air-raid precautions and drills, paper-saving, participation by organized youth groups in civilian and home defense, and an enlarged athletic program.

c) Bulkeley High School, Hartford, Connecticut, reports that it encourages its pupils to purchase defense stamps and that the results are excellent. The average amount invested in United States defense stamps by each pupil is twenty-five cents a week.

d) In the Township High School, Antioch, Illinois, the pupils buy defense stamps at the school office; collect paper; collect scrap iron (14,335 pounds to date), zinc, tin, brass, butter cartons, license plates, razor blades, paste tubes, old batteries, fruit-jar covers (zinc), and cartridge shells.

e) Central High School, Jackson, Mississippi, maintains a home-room organization which makes a weekly check of the amount of money invested by pupils and teachers in defense stamps and bonds. Each pupil is canvassed by his home-room chairman, and a report is made to the office. Each home room in the high school has an organization, the members of which have volunteered to canvass their home blocks in the city and try to sell every person in the block one or more defense stamps or bonds each week. The school has about fifty home rooms, and at present there are around two hundred pupils acting as salesmen in their home blocks.

f) The Community High School, Marengo, Illinois, has appointed a defense council consisting of four teachers and the presidents of the

four high-school classes. About this committee will revolve all activity pertaining to defense co-operation. To avoid duplication and repetition, the central committee has chosen subcommittees to work on the basis of various interests. These subcommittees are concerned with morale and patriotism, air-raid precaution, education, and sale of defense stamps.

g) Among the defense activities of the pupils and the faculty of the Graveraet High School, Marquette, Michigan, are the sale of stamps and the collection of paper, rags, and scrap metal. The pupils are also collecting books for the Victory Book Campaign, and they use the collection of paper and other material as the "fine" for being tardy or forgetting a locker key and as the "price" of admission to a matinee dance.

h) The faculty and pupils of the Mooseheart School, Mooseheart, Illinois, are planning a garden program which will more than double the amount of canned goods obtained in 1941. Boys and girls this summer will take their part in gardening and in the canning of seventy-five thousand cans of fruits and vegetables. They expect to store about five thousand bushels of vegetables in the root cellar.

i) Whiting Senior High School, Whiting, Indiana, maintains a defense-stamp booth in the hall of the school, which is selling as much as \$50 worth of defense stamps a day to some 670 pupils. The defense-bond holdings of this student body are surprisingly high.

j) The Community High School, West Chicago, Illinois, promotes the sale of defense stamps, the liberal financial support of the Red Cross, the Junior Red Cross war services, the teaching and the taking of first-aid courses by pupils and faculty, instruction in adequate air-raid precautions, and co-operation with local defense bodies.

k) Wichita High School, East, Wichita, Kansas, is officially committed to the program of selling defense stamps and bonds, Red Cross work, and all war efforts.

l) Central Junior-Senior High School, South Bend, Indiana, has recently organized a speakers' bureau with an enrolment of forty pupils, who will be available to speak before various groups throughout the city. They are now getting ready to help in the campaign to sell defense saving stamps and bonds.

m) The following is the defense program of the Batavia High School, Batavia, Illinois:

- (1) The purchase of defense stamps through home rooms.
- (2) The formation of a Junior Red Cross chapter.
- (3) The enrolment of first-aid and home-nursing classes under the Red Cross.
- (4) The practice of economy on the part of both pupils and school employees.
- (5) Co-operation in raising defense funds in the local community, in collecting wastepaper, magazines, etc.
- (6) Co-operation in registration for the community.
- (7) Co-operation by the various school clubs with the Red Cross in producing articles for soldiers.
- (8) Increase of patriotic programs tending to strengthen morale and foster Americanism.

n) The Senior High School, Hannibal, Missouri, has organized many of its defense services under the extra-curriculum program. The following statements illustrate how the plan is carried out:

- (1) Student council co-operates with defense-stamp sale each Tuesday.
- (2) Honor Society sponsored formation of Junior Red Cross in school.
- (3) Junior Red Cross co-operated on Victory Book Campaign for men in the service.
- (4) Boys' pep club to collect defense waste material—paper, metal, etc.
- (5) Student council co-operated with citizenship drive to obtain consumer pledges against wasting vital materials.
- (6) Student council co-operated with old car-license collection.
- (7) Committees appointed to plan and practice air-raid drills.
- (8) The Future Farmers of America co-operated with the United States Department of Agriculture in campaign to produce more food.

IN CONCLUSION

The total picture presented by these responses of the secondary schools to the challenge to help the nation win the war should inspire administrative officers, teachers, and pupils in schools everywhere to put forth a united effort to meet the problems presented by the greatest emergency of our national history. School traditions and customs should not be allowed to stand in the way of wholehearted participation in new activities and practices which can be shown to contribute to the realization of the nation's objectives. In so doing, the schools may find not only that the services rendered are of major importance as a war effort but also that the quality of education received by the pupils has thereby been definitely improved.

W. C. REAVIS

WHO'S WHO FOR APRIL

Writer of the news notes and authors of articles in the current number

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by W. C. REAVIS, professor of education at the University of Chicago.

STEPHEN M. COREY, professor of educational psychology and superintendent of the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago, discusses the implications of the questions that pupils have asked about the war. CHARLES M. MACCONNELL, executive officer of the New School of Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois, describes the operation of the program of core studies in the New School organized in his institution. LENOIR H. BURNSIDE, psychologist in the Department of Child Study and Special Education of the public schools of Rochester, New York, presents a detailed account of an experiment in teaching gifted pupils. THELMA A. BOLLMAN, instructor in education at the University of Texas, reports the results of a survey made to determine the extent to which college-entrance requirements influence secondary-school curriculums. WALTER L. HETZEL, superintendent of the public schools at Sumner, Iowa, reports a study of all persons who have graduated from Sumner High School from 1892 to 1940. EARL KENNETH PECKHAM, supervisor of secondary education in the public schools of Minneapolis, Minnesota, discusses the problems that arose in an attempt to make broadcasting activities of pupils serve educational needs. PAUL W. TERRY, professor of psychology at the University of Alabama, presents a list of selected references on the extra-curriculum.

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CHILDREN'S QUESTIONS AND THE WAR

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SECONDARY schools are engaged in a great variety of activities in their efforts to aid in the prosecution of the war. Shop facilities are being used to train industrial workers as well as members of the armed forces; many rural high schools are meeting six days a week in order to dismiss earlier and enable boys to go to work on the farm; more high-school buildings are being kept open evenings to provide family recreation and escape from war tensions; children are being conditioned physically so that they will be better able to endure the strenuous life of a nation at war; teachers and pupils are gathering bundles for Britain, making Red Cross supplies, and practicing first aid; and some schools are placing more and more emphasis on democratic practices.

The Educational Policies Commission has recently issued a pronouncement on war policy for American schools. The commissioners write:

Without abandoning essential services of the schools, [these] appropriate war duties of the schools should be given absolute and immediate priority in time, attention, personnel, and funds over any and all other activities.

- Training workers for war industries and services
- Producing goods and services needed for the war
- Conserving materials by prudent consumption and salvage
- Helping to raise funds to finance the war
- Increasing effective man-power by correcting educational deficiencies
- Promoting health and physical efficiency
- Protecting school children and property against attack
- Protecting the ideals of democracy against war hazards
- Teaching the issues, aims, and progress of the war and the peace
- Sustaining the morale of children and adults
- Maintaining intelligent loyalty to American democracy¹

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *A War Policy for American Schools*, p. 4. Washington: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1942.

AN INTELLECTUAL OBLIGATION

Undoubtedly all these wartime activities are important. Passing over the likelihood that engaging in them *will* result in abandoning many essential school services, it would seem that one pressing obligation of the secondary school in the present crisis is an intellectual task. There are few things that its history and its present facilities equip the high school to do better than to make it as easy as possible for children to obtain answers to their questions about the war. Everyone who spends much time with adolescents realizes that the national emergency has raised many questions in their minds—questions which cause anxiety and which these children worry about a great deal. Adults can talk all they care to about protecting their sons and daughters from the horrors of war and keeping them away from the radios and newspapers, but for high-school children such talk is certainly not realistic. The assumption is being made in the University High School of the University of Chicago that children get a certain relief from strain if they are given an opportunity to accumulate information casting light on questions relating to the war which seem important to them.

In harmony with this belief, late in January the three teachers of the social studies asked the high-school children to write down those questions relating to the emergency which they would like to have answered.¹ This request was made during a regular class period in connection with a normal discussion of current events, and the general tenor of the children's remarks led the teachers to conclude that they took the suggestion seriously. Reading through the entire list of about 650 questions submitted by seventh-, eighth-, ninth-, and tenth-grade pupils gives to an adult a lasting impression of the serious concern that the war is causing children.

ILLUSTRATIVE QUESTIONS ASKED

For the benefit of those high-school teachers and administrators who have not as yet had an occasion to hear a large group of ado-

¹ The writer is indebted to Kenneth J. Rehage, Robert B. Weaver, and Ward D. Whipple, the three social-studies teachers in the University High School of the University of Chicago. It was they who collected the questions from the children and they who are responsible for the classroom atmosphere that resulted in such serious and intelligent inquiries. Jozef Cohen tabulated the questions and constructed the table.

lescents ask questions about the emergency, a few of their inquiries are given below. These questions were not selected at random but rather were chosen to represent what seemed to the writer to be the drift of the thinking of the children. It should be borne in mind that these pupils come from the upper socio-economic strata and that they are accelerated in mental development. So far as academic achievement is concerned, they probably do as well as typical high-school children who are eighteen months older.

QUESTIONS ASKED BY PUPILS IN GRADE VII

How can a high-school student help during the present emergency?
Why does this school not have more fire drills and air-raid drills?
Is Chicago in danger of being bombed?
Why don't we bomb the Japs as they are bombing us?
Will there be a depression after this war?
What will the national debt be in 1944?
What would be the result if something serious were to happen to President Roosevelt or to Mr. Churchill?
What will we do with Germany after we have won the war—cut her up or let her get strong again?

QUESTIONS ASKED BY PUPILS IN GRADE VIII

What is being done for physical health and fitness in the national emergency?
Is civilian defense being organized in Chicago and, if so, what should we know about it?
Why in times like this is it still true that capable men who believe in this country are refused jobs because of their color? What is the government doing about it?
What is the real attitude of Americans toward the war?
How is the United States taking care of the German, Italian, and Japanese aliens here?
What should be the nature of a just peace?

QUESTIONS ASKED BY PUPILS IN GRADE IX

How many people in the United States are still unemployed, and what can be done about it?
What is going to be the effect of the war upon college enrolment?
How is our freedom going to be affected by the war?
Will we still have freedom of speech and of the press to the extent that we now have it?
Will it be possible to make a peace that once and for all will preserve peace throughout the world?

How much criticism should the government be willing to put up with?
What effect will the war have upon our democracy even if we win?

QUESTIONS ASKED BY PUPILS IN GRADE X

Would it be advisable to get married and have children at this time?
Is it better to volunteer at the earliest moment or wait and get as much education as possible before joining the armed forces?
Why do we not study things with direct relationship to the war in addition to our other studies?
Will the application of progressive-education practices in the school be retarded by war?
Why do people seem to take a "hands-off-and-do-nothing-about-it" attitude as they did before we got into the war?
Can we rely upon the information given to us by the government?

TYPES OF PUPIL QUESTIONS

All the questions asked by the children could rather easily be sorted into the following four categories: (1) those involving factual information only, (2) those involving prediction of future happenings, (3) those involving possible explanations of past occurrences, and (4) questions of value.

The factual questions are, of course, the simplest with which to deal. Illustrations of such factual questions are: (1) "How is the United States taking care of the German, Italian, and Japanese aliens here?" (2) "How is the city of Chicago preparing for civilian defense?" (3) "Are Negroes allowed in national service?" While it may not be especially easy to obtain the answers to these questions, the facts are available. Certainly it is an important function of secondary-school teachers to make these facts accessible to children.

Questions illustrating the second category, which involves prediction of future happenings, are: (1) "What commodities are most likely to be rationed within the next year?" (2) "As time goes on, what types of business enterprise are most likely to be affected by the war?" (3) "Will the draft age increase further?" (4) "Will rationing provisions become more strict?" These questions obviously involve extrapolation; they cannot be answered definitely; they go beyond the data we have at hand. It is possible, however, for most children of high-school age to discuss them intelligently and to receive much benefit through making inferences about future develop-

ments from present and past occurrences. Most high-school pupils need this experience, and the fact that the present and past occurrences being dealt with are very real to the children and extremely significant makes the activity all the more valuable educationally.

These are questions which illustrate the category involving theoretical explanations of past occurrences: (1) "Why did the United States not have more capable men in command at Pearl Harbor?" (2) "Would the United States have been in a better economic position had the President put a ceiling on prices sooner?" (3) "Why has Hitler retreated for so many days on the Russian front?" As anyone recognizes, the answers to such inquiries are exceedingly complex, but to get the matter out into the open and to attempt to accumulate as much factual information as is available is an experience which all high-school children should have. They are thus enabled to use their energies in a much more constructive fashion than is the case when they sit around and worry or debate aimlessly.

The fourth category involves the "should" concept and includes most of the questions that must be handled very delicately. Illustrations are: (1) "What should be done with conscientious objectors?" (2) "Should Germany be cut to pieces after the allies win the present war, or should she be given an opportunity to become strong again?" (3) "Should the United States conclude the war with a treaty with Japan which will give Japan more ready access to raw materials?" Despite the fact that these questions do involve many prejudices, few people will contest the recommendation that teachers and children should try to work through to answers in which they have confidence.

Table 1 represents an attempt to classify all the questions asked by children in the various grades in terms of whether the answers involve, primarily, considerations of fact or considerations of value. The first column indicates whether the questions had to do chiefly with military, economic, political, personal, civilian, and other aspects of the war. The next column is a summary of the questions asked by the seventh-grade pupils and includes a break-down into questions that require facts for an answer and questions that are primarily based on value judgments. The same analysis is given for questions asked by pupils in Grades VIII, IX, and X.

In each grade the majority of the questions asked by the children were questions of fact. These certainly should be dealt with in the school. The proportion of value questions tended to increase from grade to grade, as would be expected by one who is familiar with the general intellectual development of children. By far the greatest number of questions asked by the children had to do with the effect that war activity would have on them personally. They wanted to

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF FACT AND VALUE QUESTIONS ASKED BY HIGH-SCHOOL
CHILDREN ABOUT VARIOUS ASPECTS OF THE WAR

ASPECTS INVOLVED	NUMBER OF QUESTIONS								Total
	Grade VII		Grade VIII		Grade IX		Grade X		
	Fact	Value	Fact	Value	Fact	Value	Fact	Value	
Personal.....	36	4	24	4	43	16	39	10	176
Economic.....	9	4	18	2	46	22	25	15	141
Civilian.....	1	3	19	6	22	21	15	9	96
Military.....	21	4	13	11	13	9	16	7	94
Causal and future.....		8		12		36		22	87
Political.....	1		4		8		3	1	17
General.....		4		4		2			10
Total.....	68	27	78	39	139	106	100	64	621

know what they could do to help, what their behavior should be in case of air raids, and how their future would be affected. Questions about the economic consequences of the war were asked with next greatest frequency.

QUESTIONS MOST FREQUENTLY ASKED

Without paying attention to the grade level at which the questions were asked, the following ten occurred most frequently and in the order indicated:

1. What can we do as our share to help win the war?
2. What is the relationship between the war and depression or inflation?
3. What will be the effect of the war upon education both in general and our own?
4. What is being done, or should be done, about civilian defense?

5. What in general will be the effect of the war upon the future?
6. What about priorities: how do they operate, etc.?
7. What about rationing?
8. When will peace come, and what will be the peace terms?
9. What about air-raid precautions in our own school?
10. What is actually going on in the Pacific war?

A very large group of children considered that their own personal role in the emergency involved a most important question for them. They wondered particularly what they could do besides buy defense stamps, work in the Junior Red Cross, and sing patriotic songs. Another rather large group of children showed concern for the preservation of democratic practices during the war period. Some of them have been asking insistently the question, "What are we really fighting for?" Others wondered how it could be possible to maintain a healthy spirit of criticism regarding governmental and military activities when the "comfort-to-the-enemy" argument was used by our government as justification for withholding facts from the public.

If a school is defined, in part at least, as a place in which children are given an opportunity to obtain answers to questions that they think important, effective high-school programs should devote a substantial amount of time to helping children get answers to their questions about the war. The amount of incidental learning that occurs when children pursue some of these questions is well known to everybody who has recently, and for the first time, learned something of the geography of the Malay Peninsula.

CORE STUDIES IN THE NEW SCHOOL OF EVANSTON TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL

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INTRODUCTION

THE New School has been developed as a joint project of the Evanston Township High School and the School of Education of Northwestern University, under the leadership of Francis L. Bacon, superintendent-principal of the high school, and Ernest O. Melby, formerly dean of the Northwestern School of Education, now president of the University of Montana. Christian O. Arndt, of Northwestern University, is curriculum director. As a joint venture, the New School offered a number of promising opportunities for the exploration and development of theories of general education, as well as for a number of other experimental procedures.

The New School is a division of pupils within the main high school. Pupils elect membership in the New School as they would elect the business curriculum or any other curriculum offered. For the experimental purpose it was desirable that the enrolment reflect the normal pupil characteristics of the school as a whole. Thus a selection process to insure such normality has operated in the acceptance of candidates.

The one requirement to which all pupils of the New School subscribe is the core curriculum. Each year throughout the four years, the "core" constitutes the one constant. In addition, the pupils elect special work—shop or other courses—or they may take any of the electives open to the pupils of the main school.

Most visitors to the New School ask at some time during their stay, "What is a core?" Last spring a visitor asked a group of New School pupils this question. Various answers and comments were made. Finally one little girl raised her hand and volunteered, rather haltingly, "Core is—well, I think it should be a vest-pocket edition

of a democracy." The following attempt to define and explain the workings of the core curriculum in the New School will probably get no closer to the essence than this definition which came out of one pupil's experience in the school.

As we understand the "core" in the New School, it is that part of a general educational program which should be included in the experience of every American child. Core studies cut across subject fields and may consider problems or areas that lie in several traditional fields of scholarship.

One experimenter in core studies has stated, "Our subject matter is social science, our medium is English, and our method is that of science." Another added, "And our purpose is to give training for life in a democracy." The core curriculum is an "experiment in democratic living." Rather, perhaps, it is an experiment in democratic learning. It is easy to say where the emphasis in the core is *not*: the prime purpose in core studies is not to master a body of subject matter either previously organized by a specialist or currently organized by the class.

While the core-studies "course" in the New School occupies approximately half of the class time of the four levels (Grades IX, X, XI, and XII), the first section of this article will be confined to a discussion of the ninth-grade core studies. Our methods there are characteristic of our purposes, and, while the specialization of subject matter must, of necessity, increase in the higher grades, the basic concept of a core curriculum remains the same at all levels.

OBJECTIVES OF THE CORE CURRICULUM

The New School at present is in the process of defining its objectives. That process will not end, it is safe to say, so long as the school remains experimental. However, there are some objectives upon which all staff members would agree. Training in critical thinking certainly stands in first place, followed by such related objectives as learning to solve problems; learning to plan, both individually and in groups; learning to make common decisions regarding common problems; and learning to work together co-operatively in a group on a common project. All these objectives imply learning to respect the rights of others; obviously they concern democratic living.

We have other objectives that concern democratic learning. One is learning to listen productively, and another is learning to give expression to one's thoughts in various mediums—oral, written, artistic, and mechanical (through the use of tools).

A more extended statement of core objectives was made and outlined some months ago. The core curriculum at each grade level had previously worked out its objectives. These were pooled by a staff committee, and an attempt was made to work out a generalized statement concerning the objectives of the core studies in the New School. An outline of the objectives included in the committee's report follows.

1. Reflective and critical thinking
 - a) Learning to plan
 - b) Learning to solve problems (the scientific approach)
 - c) Learning to evaluate and to develop a scale of values (tastes and appreciations, etc.)
2. Basic skills in learning and in expression
 - a) Skills in learning
 - (1) Finding and gathering material
 - (2) Learning to solve problems and organize material
 - (3) Learning basic language, number, and expression skills
 - (4) Learning the art of listening
 - b) Skills in expression
 - (1) Speaking
 - (2) Writing
 - (3) Use of tools as well as manual and artistic expression
 - (4) Dramatics, body action, use of prepared illustrative material, etc.
 - (5) Awareness of the needs, desires, interest, and capacity of an audience
3. Social adjustment
 - a) Learning to work together in a group on a common project, each contributing a share
 - b) Learning to make common decisions concerning common problems—not by compromise, but by consensus, the democratic process
 - c) Learning to respect the rights of others
 - d) Learning personal poise and self-reliance (for social purposes)
 - e) Learning to make adjustments to current social acceptances and situations
4. Subject mastery
 - a) Understanding modern life
 - b) Study of the past to explain the present: backgrounds, understandings, appreciations

PLANNING IN THE CORE CURRICULUM

The Freshman core program is planned by the pupils. Frequently we are asked, "Do the pupils really plan the program, or does the teacher plan it and persuade the pupils into thinking that it is really their work?" Admittedly, any strong leader in a group influences the planning of that group, but he certainly should never dominate it. Visitors have frequently commented on the fact that New School teachers are unusually patient and skilful in thinking things through with their classes.

When selecting an area, the group does a great deal of preliminary surveying before trying to come to a definite decision. One core group last September discussed what a boy of the ancient Egyptian nobility or a boy in the English aristocratic classes should study in school. It became apparent, the class thought, that the boy should study those things needed in order to live in the class, the environment, and the time which were his. Hence American children should study those things that will help them understand American life—its backgrounds and its problems. In addition, these studies should encourage the development of a pattern of living designed to promote growth and personal satisfactions.

Living in America in the twentieth century, and certainly since 1918, is very different from living here in the early part of the nineteenth century. This ninth-grade group thought that they ought to study how America expanded geographically; to see how the original fringe along the Atlantic coast spread clear across the continent; to understand the development of industrial America; and to see how rural and village America became the America of big cities. Too, they were interested in where the people of America came from, not merely those who came before the Revolutionary War (information carried by the textbooks in history), but the great masses of people who have come since, or, as one person skilfully stated it, "from Puritan to Pole." The group finally decided to begin with the changes that had been brought about in American life with the coming of the machine. The next step was the organizing, or the breaking-down, of this large area into smaller fields. Sometimes this process is difficult and prolonged.

It is the duty of the teacher to lead such discussions, at least at first, until capable leaders develop within the group. However, he must be careful not to do too much directing. The thinking should come out of the group, the teacher helping only when the group is unable to proceed under its own momentum. Parenthetically, our core groups have made it a practice to get the help of anyone who may be available—other teachers, parents, even visitors who happen to be in the room. However, this help is not sought until pupil resources have been exhausted. Of course outside reading by individuals or by committees, interviews, and other types of research are frequently helpful as preliminaries to planning.

Visitors frequently raise this question: "When an area is chosen, isn't it chosen by a majority vote, contrary to the preferences of a minority that is more or less disgruntled or at least disappointed in the actual choice?" The answer is: "Yes, but they learn to adjust themselves. This is the democratic way." In various core groups as many as fifteen subjects have been suggested for study. Gradually, as these are talked through, one after another is eliminated; others are combined; finally a choice is made. In skilful planning the choice is not a majority choice; it is a consensus, a composite opinion reached by common consent. Usually there is a consciously synthetic choice, made up of the elements of a number of original suggestions.

One of the great dangers of pupil planning is that the teacher and even the pupils may become disturbed about what seems to be an unprofitable use of time. "We have been wasting time." "We have been on this thing for a week, and we are getting nowhere." "We will never come to a decision in this class." Such statements are dangerous.

Good adult planning is a slow process. Certainly we should not expect more of young learners than we do of their elders. Quick planning tends to be the work of a single mind. If a week is needed to plan an area, then a week should be given to the process. One summer-school group made up of pupils from a traditional school took three weeks to complete a workable outline. In the meantime they had made several outlines and discarded them. The group

finally became so agitated and felt the frustration of the situation so keenly that they were ready to pull hair. The teacher, of course, did not go without blame. Finally they took the matter in their own hands, settled their differences, and planned an area in less than two days. Who can say that worth-while learning had not gone forward during those three weeks?

Experience with a core curriculum would seem to indicate that there are periodic "bog-downs," followed by rather extended plateaus of satisfaction and good work. We have come to wonder whether the learning process may not be like that: frustration or at least dissatisfaction, the desire and the will to do something about it, followed by the satisfactions of accomplishment.

The next step after making the outline is the assignment of topics, each pupil choosing or accepting a topic. If more than one pupil has a topic, the group works as a committee. The committee elects a chairman, who is responsible for seeing that the members find material which fits their report into the general scheme and that they are prepared to give their report at the time scheduled.

Usually reports are scheduled at least two weeks in advance. The pupil has ample time to gather material and to ask help if he runs into difficulty. In 1940-41 only one person failed to meet his schedule, except in cases of extended absence because of illness. Any change of schedule must be presented to the group for decision.

From the discussion above it will be seen that there are really two stages in the planning. The first step is the choosing of an area, sometimes a long and tedious process. The next step, of course, is the organization or outlining of the area chosen. The outline is made primarily for the purpose of distributing the topics, each pupil taking his choice.

Outlines made by pupil planning are frequently criticized as being incomplete and not wholly logical. However, the pupils have found that the same criticisms can be made of almost any outline; for, when they examine the outlines in history books or in books of any other subject, they find gaps in information and compromises or "illogical" arrangements. In short, the pupil-planned outline is a work sheet, and it has imperfections, as does any other outline.

One pupil or group of pupils is responsible for the presentation of a small section of a larger topic. When the whole topic is finished, the class should have a complete picture—a mosaic made by the combined efforts of the class.

THE REPORT

In spite of all our efforts to discover new techniques and new methods, the *report* remains the chief method of presentation. We have become convinced that it is virtually the only effective method that can be used in this kind of work. Of course the old-fashioned, stereotyped report soon becomes quite as uninteresting as the traditional recitation. The solution of this difficulty, as we see it, is in the elaboration of techniques of the report rather than the discovery of other methods of presentation. A report is seldom uninteresting when it makes use of a moving picture or of a trip that the class has taken. Good illustrative material always commands attention.

Creative pupils frequently interject excellent showmanship into their reporting. One committee reporting on the winning of Texas prepared a radio script presenting the episodes in the life of a family that moved to Texas from east of the Mississippi River while Texas was still a part of Mexico. The skilful unfolding of the story of this family was also the unfolding of the story of Texas. The broadcasting effect was obtained by the use of a microphone in an adjacent room, which was connected to a loud-speaker in the classroom of the core group. Sound effects and music helped make the program sound "regular."

Only the other day a boy and a girl who were reporting on slave life on a southern plantation costumed themselves as carefully as for the stage and, staying entirely within character, told of the life and customs on an ante bellum plantation.

Another notable report concerned the flags of the Latin-American republics. A Sophomore girl made the flags accurately of colored paper. She displayed them, made necessary explanations, and answered questions. Later she conducted a quiz by showing a flag and asking that the name of the country which it represented be written. Her oral presentation was reduced to a minimum, but she had spent hours in research and construction.

ADJUSTMENTS NECESSARY FOR THE TEACHER

There is no denying that this type of education is different from the traditional type. The teacher who wants to carry with him all the hearthstone gods of the traditional classroom has failed before he has started. If he really believes that the core program should be a social experience, then any social pressure that is brought on the individual must come from the group. While he does whatever he can to sharpen the sense of responsibility of the pupils under him, he must leave outside the door all his old-time whips, whether they be punishments, sarcasm, or marks.

The teacher must learn not to talk too much. In the first weeks he will have to familiarize his group with the type of program which he expects them to develop. Then, gradually, he should fade into the background until the pupil leaders are in charge most of the time, except during the planning session; for planning seems to be the most difficult part of a core program for pupils to manage during their first year. Most of the time he sits in the body of the class while a pupil is in charge. When the teacher is not acting as chairman, he raises his hand to gain the floor, just as would any other member of the group.

CURRENT EVALUATIONS

Pupils should not be interrupted in presentations until they have finished. After the presentation, there is a time for questions about the report. When the reporter has taken his usual seat in the class, the chairman asks some pupil to act as an evaluator. The evaluator leads a discussion concerning the worth and nature of the material, as well as the organization and the presentation of the report.

Our school has found great benefit in what we call "personal evaluations." These evaluations are usually held at the end of each semester. They are purely voluntary, but seldom does a pupil (and never a teacher) refuse to take his place in front of the class for kindly, constructive criticism.

It is agreed that the evaluation must be done in the spirit of good will and that no criticism of any person will be made unless there is a reasonable chance that an adjustment is possible. Statements such as "I don't like your neckties," or "I think your family ought to

let you go out more over the week ends," would be quickly resented and suppressed by other pupils. However, such a statement as "I think you are a little sloppy sometimes about your clothes," would be accepted by the group provided that they thought the sloppiness was the result of habit rather than of family economics. Of course many positive statements are made, such as "You are always friendly to everybody," or "Whenever there is something to do, we always know that you are willing to do your share."

The core-group secretary makes a summary of each personal evaluation, which may later be used by the pupil or the teacher in writing evaluation reports. Below are several actual summaries taken from a secretary's log.

George improved in attitude. He is more willing to co-operate. He doesn't read during class as much as he used to. He belittles what anyone says to him. He has a careless attitude, a bored look, but is not really bored. He could enter into discussion more. In knowledge he has a lot more to give us, but in social life we can help him. George has a good sense of humor, but seems resentful and afraid that we won't follow his leadership.

Pat isn't afraid of other people. She gives reports in a nice way as though she were talking just to you. She is too optimistic, too critical sometimes. Seems to shun realism if unpleasant.

June has come out of last year's shell. She organizes better. She has improved her speaking voice and talks louder, but still has quite a low voice. June is slow getting started. Her attitude in class is fine, and she makes helpful comments. She is passive, not negative.

Twice each semester an evaluation is sent home. This report consists of four sheets of standard typewriting paper. On the first sheet is an evaluation of the core studies. About three-fourths of this sheet is devoted to a mimeographed summary of the work covered by the group. Beneath this summary is a typewritten report of the individual pupil. The second sheet is used for the reports of his work in elective subjects. If the elective is a New School subject, the report is in the form of a written statement. If it is a regular school subject, the mark (symbol) used by the regular school is recorded. On the third sheet the pupil writes an evaluation of his work. The last sheet is reserved for the parent's comments. These are returned by the parents (we get a return of about 30 per cent) and are filed with the school's duplicate of the evaluation report.

ULTIMATE EVALUATION

One of the hardest things that a core-curriculum teacher must learn is patience in looking for results.¹ The more important outcomes cannot be immediate. If a boy puts on a new suit, his superficial achievement can be easily seen. If the teacher asks him, "Have you eaten your spinach and done your exercises today so that you have had your daily growth?" the boy may answer "Yes," but his growth cannot immediately be measured. If the boy's measurement is taken in September and again on the first of March, perhaps some small growth may be noticed.

In a similar way, the boy who is exposed to memory learning, when asked what he has learned today, may very easily reply, "*Amo, amas, amat*"; but the boy who is taking core studies, when he is asked what he has learned today, is frequently hard put to it to return a satisfactory dinner-table answer to his parents. Much of the boy's answer must be delayed. Is the boy different in June from the lad he was in September? Has he grown in the direction that the school would like to have him grow? Part of the answer must be awaited for years, until the world begins to take his measure.

¹ Our first class was graduated from the New School of Evanston Township High School in June, 1941. For these graduates we have a considerable body of evaluating material in the form of tests, written evaluations, anecdotal memoranda, and so on. In addition, each graduate has provided us with a written estimate of the significance of the four years spent with us. Specific questions were asked as guides in the writing of these estimates. The parents also were requested to provide us with their opinions of our program, citing definite behavior modifications whenever possible. This material has been tabulated and is now available at the New School office.

AN EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM IN EDUCATION
OF THE INTELLECTUALLY GIFTED
ADOLESCENT

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DEVELOPING A PLAN

THE challenge to our educational program by the top 1 per cent of the school population was highlighted several years ago by the results of a study made by the author of this article for the purpose of determining how accurately scholastic achievement in high school could be predicted from scores on group intelligence tests administered at entrance to high school. That study showed that pupils in this small top group on the tests were almost always found in the fourth quarter in scholastic achievement at graduation but that too often they did not hold the top ranks.

Monroe High School at Rochester, New York, with a large percentage of pupils of superior intelligence, was already organized into ability groups for classroom instruction. Two so-called "honor groups" were formed in each entering class. Except for a few cases, the intelligence-test ratings of pupils in these two groups were above 110, and school achievement was average or better. These groupings became less homogeneous each succeeding year, when choices of electives necessitated shifts among class groups. However, even in the Senior year the nucleus of ability grouping was still present. A pupil whose record of achievement was above the average had the privilege also of taking an additional course either to broaden the base of his knowledge or to shorten the time required for graduation. By these methods we had hoped to make adequate provision for our brightest pupils, but the study of the relation of test scores to final achievement raised several questions.

Did the tests fail to indicate, or did they indicate erroneously, our most intellectually gifted pupils? Or did our educational program

fail to stimulate their interest and to require their best effort? We had data which threw some light on the first question. The larger number of pupils in the fourth quarter for whom the tests seemed less reliable in predictive value had intelligence quotients above 130 on the tests given. An analysis of the test ratings of Monroe High School pupils who had won New York State scholarships, awarded on Regents' examination only, showed that 90 per cent had intelligence quotients above 120. These two facts suggested the probability that our educational program was not meeting the educational needs of our more brilliant pupils.

It was our belief that the public school should make provision suited to the peculiar needs of the exceptionally able children, as well as the needs of the exceptionally unable, as was a well-established practice in our city. We believed that a true democracy would give to those individuals of great endowment opportunity of education at least equal to that offered to those of less endowment.

We began to watch with increased interest the work with young gifted children being carried on at the Speyer School in New York City. Our efforts to launch an experimental program in our own school at the secondary level did not prove successful until the winter of 1938. At that time this author and the vice-principal, V. James Morgan, working together with the encouragement and counsel of the principal of Monroe High School, William E. Hawley, formulated, presented, and had approved by the Board of Education the plan which this article describes. It is not the most ideal plan which we could envisage, but it is a plan that promised to be, and is proving to be, practicable within the limitations of a large public school functioning under a depression budget.

The plan provided for an experiment, of not less than five years' duration, in the education of a group of pupils selected from each of the senior high school grades. The organized group was to be known as the "Honor-Work Class." The objectives of this plan were: (1) to provide for our more gifted pupils a program of educational experiences which would help them to realize their full potentialities, teach them the habit of thorough study, stimulate intellectual curiosity, enrich and strengthen their personalities, and assist in preparing them to accept and meet with dynamic initiative the

problems presented by a rapidly changing society; (2) to experiment with educational procedures which would stimulate the desire for subject mastery and promote effective thinking; (3) to contribute to the meager fund of scientific data having to do with the development and education of the gifted adolescent in order that we may, in co-operation with other educators, evolve an educational program of experiences significant in the training of prospective leaders.

SELECTION OF THE PUPILS

In the organizing of our group we avoided the use of the term "gifted" because of the impossibility of knowing categorically who the gifted are and also because of the fear of rendering a disservice to the very individuals we were wanting to aid. Hence we chose the name "Honor Work" for our classes—a name which suggests something of both privilege and responsibility for the individual members.

Two criteria were the bases of selection: a rating in the top 1 per cent on an intelligence test and a superior scholastic record in Monroe High School. By this method, selections were impersonally made and were based on two of the characteristics of giftedness which almost all recognize as fundamental, namely, intellectual ability and character. Research by other workers has shown the positive correlation of intelligence and other desirable traits. We realized that there is no gap in intelligence or any other human trait. Wherever we drew the line, there would remain a margin of error in our selections, but for practical purposes it was necessary to delimit the problem.

The first step was to survey the available data. The record of every pupil whose individual progress chart showed above-average achievement in each subject was checked against the test ratings. We had in our possession the results of the Morgan Mental Test or the Otis Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability, or both. To some pupils whose ratings approached the threshold set for our group, we gave additional tests. Selected by this method of combined data, sixty-four pupils were invited to enter the first experimental group.

As the proposed plan of instruction and of greater pupil responsi-

bility entailed some hazard to the records of the subjects selected, the next step was to place the plan before their parents for approval or rejection. For this purpose the principal invited the parents to a conference at the school, when the plan, its privileges, and its responsibilities were explained in detail. The parents unanimously agreed to accept whatever hazard the plan involved for their children and to approve their entrance into the group for a period of not less than one year.

The complete plan was then placed before the previously invited pupils. Sixty-one elected to join the group. Thirteen of these pupils were in Grade XII, thirteen in Grade XI, fifteen in Grade X, and twenty in Grade IX. Twenty pupils, selected by similar criteria, were added at the ninth-grade level in September, 1939, and twelve in September, 1940. At the time of writing, there were sixty pupils in the group: twenty-five boys and thirty-five girls. A total of ninety-four, representing a cross-section on the social and economic scale, have had experience in the group.

ORGANIZATION, EQUIPMENT, AND TEACHING STAFF

Partly in an effort to stimulate the blazing of new trails in educational procedures and to prevent the relapse into conventional techniques, and partly also to meet the Board of Education's requirement of class size, our pupils were organized into two ungraded groups. In each group were placed half the pupils from each grade. This plan resulted in a class composed of about thirty highly intelligent pupils with a grade range of IX through XII.

The physical aspect and the equipment of our present organization leave much to be desired, for our budget limitations are narrow. We have not yet succeeded in obtaining movable furniture other than one table for group committee work in each room. Movable equipment was promised by the board, but the space requirement for a class of this size has made it impossible to arrange for the kind of furniture needed. In the case of equipment such as pictures, charts, maps, victrolas, etc., nothing extra was provided for this group, as the available facilities in the school seemed adequate until experimentation should point up specific needs. Additional reference books, charts, maps, and periodicals have now been supplied. Mem-

bers of the group keep track of this branch library, at present composed of approximately five hundred volumes. Four typewriters have been furnished for the use of these groups. Having equipment ready at hand to supplement that supplied for the school as a whole continues to be a concern of the teachers.

The teachers, chosen from the regular staff at Monroe High School, were selected for their cultural interests, superior teaching techniques, dynamic personalities, adaptability, and the desire to join in experimentation in educational procedures with gifted children.

Each subject teacher was to have charge of the two Honor-Work classes and two regular classes in that same subject. One of the teachers would be named co-ordinator for the group and would teach only the Honor-Work classes in his subject. The remainder of his time was to be given over to co-ordinating the activities of the group, arranging trips to utilize the community's assets for valuable educational experiences, and securing and keeping records of much valuable information. Six teachers were chosen for the experimental group.

V. James Morgan, vice-principal of the school, was made special administrator of the group. Burr Coe, the mathematics teacher, was made co-ordinator. The school psychologist (the writer of this article) was directed to take charge of the psychological study of the group and to give special attention to individual personnel guidance of its members.

CURRICULUM

The subject matter outlined in the New York State syllabus is the minimum requirement for each pupil. This minimum requirement is essential since the pupils in these classes are required to take the Regents' examinations for college entrance and for New York State scholarships. We might be able to persuade the colleges to waive the requirement in the case of exceptionally able and well-prepared students, but there is no way to hurdle the state scholarship requirement. The necessity for scholarship aid, together with the present state system of awards, limits possible and desirable experimentation in curriculum differentiation.

Honor-Work classes were formed in mathematics, English, social

studies, French, and science (physics and chemistry). Too few pupils elected Latin and German to justify Honor-Work classes in those two subjects because of the increase in per pupil cost for very small classes. We hope that the membership of our classes will increase or that some other means may be devised to make possible the inclusion of these subjects in the experimental program.

Typewriting is required of all Honor-Work pupils. It was requested by the majority of the group, and, because this skill is a valuable tool for every student, we made it a requirement. Each pupil is permitted to discontinue attendance in the typewriting class whenever he reaches a proficiency of thirty words a minute. This speed is not adequate for a vocational skill, but it is deemed sufficient to enable typewriting to be used as an educational tool. The plan is to offer typewriting instruction to this group every alternate year.

As in Latin and German, Honor-Work pupils join in the regular classes for art and music. Only those pupils who elect these classes obtain training in these areas, but we hope to remedy this situation in the near future. We now have under consideration a plan to offer a course in fine arts or general culture which will alternate with the typewriting course for the entire Honor-Work group. Talented pupils in music and art would continue to report for specialized instruction, but the required course would insure to all a background of knowledge and appreciation in these and other areas of aesthetics. In this way we hope to contribute to their enrichment and enjoyment of life in leisure-time hours.

In addition to the program of studies which each pupil elects for himself, members of the Honor-Work class are given a "permanent pass"—a roving privilege to enter any class in the school for as brief or as long a period as may be desirable for any constructive educational purpose. He is free to make this plan for himself with any teacher in the building as long as he does not neglect his specific responsibilities or disturb the class he enters. It is our experience that pupils fill their time so completely that this privilege is never abused.

Pupils of the Honor-Work classes are segregated only for instruction in the subjects indicated. In all other phases of the school program—health education, gymnasium, assemblies, student councils, clubs, dramatics, etc.—these pupils join with all other pupils of the

school. Thus they do not lose the common touch, nor are they discriminated against by other pupils of the school.

POLICY OF INSTRUCTION

The plan called for a modified "Dalton Plan" of instruction. We believe that more important than the particular curriculum which we may offer is the opportunity for each pupil to progress at his own rate coupled with increased responsibility for his own success. After a preview of the work to be mastered during a year, daily assignments were replaced by units of long-time assignments. Thus from the beginning the pupil was acquainted with the goal to be reached before the final examination in that subject. He was released from an intolerable weight of drill but was held responsible for mastery of a given unit of knowledge. He was given suggestions for budgeting his time, but the responsibility was his. Home work, in the current understanding of those odious words, was not assigned, but study was essential. Whenever individual difficulties were detected, help was given. The teacher's time was divided between group and individual instruction, and all had equal access to individual work. Examinations to ascertain achievement were given at stated intervals, but a pupil had the privilege of requesting an earlier examination if he gave evidence that he was prepared. The members of the classes were given free rein, for we wanted them to set the pace. Under these conditions a pupil learned as much as he could or would, and learned at his own rate provided that the rate was not less than the minimum established by the necessities of the course.

In the beginning the majority of pupils floundered; they wasted time and then became concerned because of their lack of achievement. As this concern became greater, self-discipline began to emerge. One or two pupils gave up the struggle and returned voluntarily to the regular classes. Two who had great ability unaccompanied by ambition never made the struggle and, after a year, were required to return to the regular classes. The testimony of our graduates now in college gives encouragement to the pupils and the faculty that the techniques and methods of instruction used in the Honor-Work classes are an asset in their learning experiences.

When the plan for the experiment was formulated, the question of

acceleration or enrichment arose. We favor, in the words of the proposal submitted to the Board of Education, "a combination of enrichment and a moderate degree of acceleration, with attention to the needs and potentialities of individuals. With the proper consideration for health and recreation some acceleration is desirable." Because of the social and the emotional disadvantages of entering college too young, we think that sixteen years of age at graduation from high school should, at present, be the limit of acceleration.

That these classes may not be used primarily for acceleration, it is agreed by both the pupils and their parents that the time spent in high school before graduation will not be shortened. This stipulation would not preclude the possibility of exception if individual needs indicated acceleration to be desirable. If full consideration is given to health and social adjustment, this author would encourage acceleration within the limit above stated. In some educational circles too much emphasis has been placed on the single factor of chronological age. There are as many individual differences in mental, social, and physiological age as in chronological age. In some individuals, particularly among exceptionally intelligent young persons, there are wide variations in the respective areas of development. In the educational process they are too often penalized merely because their chronological age, which is a constant for all, cannot keep the pace of their development. When an educational plan is drawn up for any child, all aspects of growth must be considered in order that he may not be out of depth in any area of development and yet may be stimulated to extend his grasp to the utmost.

Enrichment by every means available in the school and the community is encouraged. It has no limit except that imposed by the time and the energy and ability of the individual pupil. It is the major aim of the differentiation in the classes designed for the Honor-Work group. Further enrichment for individual pupils may be obtained through the addition of subjects. Special encouragement and emphasis is placed on enrichment through skills and knowledge not included in the conventional major subjects of a college-preparatory course—art, music, physical and recreational skills, and hobbies. We want increase in knowledge and skills that will be true enrichment, not mere decorative addenda.

REPORTS AND TESTING

In this group we have discarded the procedure employed by the regular school of sending to the parents report cards marked by teachers on a five-point scale. For these pupils that procedure tends to encourage a false appraisal of growth and the development of habits of laziness, since they are able to earn high marks with relatively little effort. To the end that they may develop habits of self-appraisal and a satisfaction in genuine achievement, we have placed on them the task of evaluating their own progress. Then in individual conferences with the teachers they discuss their ratings and their work. This evaluation is required of each pupil once a term, and a record is kept by both teacher and pupil. The resultant ratings of scholastic achievement, together with a detailed analysis of specific strengths and weaknesses of preparation, are sent to parents. As individual needs indicate the desirability, informal conferences between pupil and teacher occur throughout the term for the purpose of discussing pupil progress and suggesting ways and means of improvement.

As an aid in evaluating and modifying the original plan, anecdotal records also are kept of each pupil, along with much pertinent data concerning interests and activities. At graduation a very complete record is made for each child. In this record appear a short autobiography written by the pupil and a statement of his interests and aims in continuing his education. The record also contains a copy of the school record and a statement of objective data and personal observation by each subject teacher, the psychologist, and the principal. One copy of this record is retained at the school, and another is sent to the college on the pupil's application for entrance.

The final tests of scholastic achievement are those sent out by the Board of Regents of the State of New York. Other scholastic tests are devised and administered during the year by the specific subject teachers.

A battery of psychological tests of ability, aptitude, and interests is given for purposes of individual guidance and for the accumulation of objective data concerning secondary-school pupils of very high intellectual capacity.

One of our difficulties in selecting tests for this group has been

noted by workers with young children of similar intellectual endowment; namely, they are frequently limited by the tests so that no reliable estimate of ability is found.¹ We are still searching for adequate tests to measure achievement and to indicate potentiality. The main difficulty is to find a test which has enough top to permit the best older pupils to reach their limit in score without excluding the youngest. In all our tests of general intelligence the gifted adolescent is penalized because the ceiling of the test is reached before a valid measure of ability is obtained. Even the revised Stanford-Binet test is too limiting to furnish an estimate of the potentiality of a brilliant adolescent. Group tests seem to penalize the brilliant at whatever age, probably because of the physical and the mechanical difficulties inherent in a group test. On the Revised Army Group Examination Alpha, twenty-five out of fifty-eight tested scored in the top 1 per cent. Two who rated at the ninety-third percentile were the only pupils who scored below the ninety-fifth percentile.

The battery of tests now in use will be changed as better tests are developed or as the data obtained may be found to be too unreliable or inadequate for our group. These tests, except for the college-entrance test, are given at the time of entrance to the group. Some are repeated immediately before graduation from high school. They are given and scored by the psychologist exactly as prescribed in the test instructions. The following tests have been used for all the group unless otherwise indicated: American Council Psychological Examination for College Freshmen (given during the spring term of the Senior year); Co-operative General Culture Test, Revised Series, Form R (first used in June, 1941); Hildreth Personality and Interest Inventory; Lewerenz Tests in Fundamental Abilities of Visual Art; Link Inventory of Activities and Interests; Minnesota Paper Form Board (revised); Revised Army Group Examination Alpha, Form 7; Seashore Measures of Musical Talent; Traxler High School Reading Test, Form A, Grades X, XI, and XII; Wrenn

¹ Leta S. Hollingworth and Margaret V. Cobb, "Children Clustering at 165 I.Q. and Children Clustering at 146 I.Q. Compared for Three Years in Achievement," *Nature and Nurture: Their Influence upon Achievement*, pp. 3-33. Twenty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1928.

Study-Habits Inventory. The former teachers of these pupils have filled in ratings for them on the Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Schedules. The Honor-Work teachers fill in these scales for each pupil at the completion of his time in the group.

PARENTAL CO-OPERATION

During the year four or more evening meetings for parents and teachers are held for discussion of the entire program, its objectives, and the progress toward those objectives. These meetings are attended by almost all the parents, fathers as well as mothers. Merely becoming acquainted in these informal gatherings is a mutual benefit.

For the discussion of problems of individual pupils, parents are encouraged to come to the school at any time to interview any one of the administrative group. This opportunity, however, is not peculiar to the Honor-Work group but prevails for all the school. The coordinator of the Honor-Work group has at least one conference during the year with the parents of each pupil in the group.

We have not done enough in getting contributions from the parents. We know that they too are very busy people, and we have not yet worked out any satisfactory means for obtaining systematic data from them without demanding too much of their time. Perhaps our informal-contact method is as much as we should ask.

CONCLUSION

Our experiment has been in operation for too short a time to allow even tentative conclusions to be drawn from the data accumulated.

Our present eleventh-grade pupils will be the first to graduate after a full four years in the group. We are not succeeding so fully as we had hoped in raising the standard of achievement, as indicated by marks on the Regents' examinations. In the case of the two pupils who returned by their own request to the regular classes, we feel that we failed to strengthen their willingness to face actuality on their own responsibility. In the case of the other two returned to the regular classes, we failed to break down the habit of expecting an effortless existence, in the building of which, we believe, their earlier educational experience had played a responsible role. For best re-

sults a differentiated program of education is needed from the beginning. For the vast majority there has been gain—a gain most marked in personality, poise, stability, and willingness to assume their share in responsibility for themselves and for the welfare of the group. We have only subjective judgments as a measure of this gain because adequate objective tests are not available. Both teacher observation and pupil testimony bear witness to the advantages of the Honor-Work classes.

The pupil testimony of the value of the learning situations provided by the Honor-Work classes is more emphatic after the pupils have entered on their college careers. Their achievement in their first year of college has been encouraging. Through the pupils and the co-operation of the colleges, we are keeping careful follow-up records of that achievement.

With one exception, all the graduates have entered some school of advanced learning. This student has been left behind because of lack of the necessary funds. For a gifted child to be denied opportunity because of lack of money is a waste of our most valuable asset.

In an effort to aid in reducing this financial problem, which so many of our pupils face, we send our very complete record to the college of the student's choice with an application for scholarship. Last year the colleges responded with a total of \$12,800 in scholarship awards.

We hope that the time limit of our experiment will be extended. We believe that advantages outweigh disadvantages to gifted children who are segregated for class instruction but mixed with the general population in the assemblies, home rooms, and social activities of the school. We hope that, through objective tests and subjective data, we may gather evidence which will aid in identifying the gifted and in determining the differentiation in curriculum and instruction needed to provide him a rich background of ideas and valuable experiences in social living that he may perceive the significant features of his times and function uniquely and dynamically in the advance of mankind.

RELATION OF COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS AND THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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IN ORDER to find out certain facts and opinions concerning the problem of the relation between college-entrance requirements and the secondary-school curriculum, the writer in the spring of 1941 sent an inquiry to the secondary-school principals of Texas. The study, sponsored by the Texas Association of Secondary School Principals and the State Department of Education, was made under the direction of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction of the University of Texas. A preliminary letter explaining the project and soliciting co-operation had been sent to the 881 principals of the white high schools who were listed in the state school directory for 1940-41. Approximately 52 per cent of the administrators agreed to co-operate, and 237, or 52 per cent, returned the check lists in time for tabulation.

Seventy-one of the replies, 30 per cent, were from schools with enrolments below 200; 97, or 41 per cent, were from schools with enrolments of 200-499; and 69, or 29 per cent, were from still larger schools.

PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS FINISHING HIGH SCHOOL AND ENTERING COLLEGE

A report on the percentages of pupils who never complete high school is presented in Table 1. About 22 per cent of the schools report that from 20 to 29 per cent of pupils entering high school do not remain for graduation, while about 14 per cent say that from 30 to 39 per cent drop out before completing high school.

There is a trend for increasingly larger percentages of graduates to enter college. For example, 6.8 per cent of the schools report that fewer than 10 per cent of their 1934-35 graduates entered college, whereas only 3.8 per cent report that fewer than 10 per cent of their

1939-40 graduates entered college. More than 11 per cent of the principals report that from 30 to 39 per cent of their 1934-35 graduates entered college; more than 14 per cent report that 30-39 per cent of the 1939-40 graduates entered college. Approximately 6 per cent report that 40-49 per cent of the 1934-35 graduates entered colleges, while 12.7 per cent say that 40-49 per cent of the 1939-40 graduates entered higher institutions.

TABLE 1
REPLIES FROM TEXAS HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS GIVING
APPROXIMATE PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS WHO DO
NOT COMPLETE HIGH SCHOOL

PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS NOT COM- PLETING SCHOOL	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS REPLYING			TOTAL	
	Schools with Enrolments below 200	Schools with Enrolments of 200-499	Schools with Enrolments of 500 and Up	Number	Per Cent
0-9.....	13	15	10	38	16.0
10-19.....	25	29	21	75	31.6
20-29.....	12	25	15	52	21.9
30-39.....	10	14	9	33	13.9
40-49.....	1	3	3	7	3.0
50-59.....	1	2	1	4	1.6
60-69.....	2	2	.8
70-79.....	2	3	5	2.1
80-89.....0
90-100.....	1	1	0.4

COLLEGE-PREPARATORY CURRICULUM

From Table 2 it is seen that more than 90 per cent of the principals believe that the college-preparatory curriculum is not best for *all* high-school pupils. More than a fifth believe that it is best for 20-29 per cent of the pupils, while 17.3 per cent believe that it is not best for *any* of the pupils.

The reason given by nearly three-fourths of the principals who consider the college-preparatory curriculum unsuited to some high-school pupils is that it does not meet the need of those who do not go to college.

College-entrance requirements cause pupils to select the college-

preparatory curriculum, according to the opinion of 64.6 per cent of the principals. Other high-ranking reasons for the pupils' selection of this curriculum are: it is the chief curriculum offered (52 per cent); parents request or require it (48 per cent); social position of family favors it (38 per cent); and economic background favors it (25 per cent).

TABLE 2

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF TEXAS HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS WHO BELIEVE COLLEGE-PREPARATORY CURRICULUM IS BEST FOR CERTAIN PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS

PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS FOR WHOM CURRICULUM IS BEST	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS REPLYING			TOTAL	
	Schools with Enrolments below 200	Schools with Enrolments of 200-499	Schools with Enrolments of 500 and Up	Number	Per Cent
0.....	10	19	12	41	17.3
1-9.....	1	2	3	1.3
10-19.....	6	12	8	26	11.0
20-29.....	19	18	15	52	22.0
30-39.....	2	14	9	25	10.5
40-49.....	3	3	5	11	4.6
50-59.....	14	9	7	30	12.7
60-69.....	4	2	3	9	3.8
70-79.....	6	9	3	18	7.6
80-89.....	1	1	2	.8
90-99.....	2	1	2	5	2.1
100.....	1	1	.4
No response	3	8	3	14	5.9
Total..	71	97	69	237	100.0

SET PATTERNS OF SUBJECTS FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE

Relatively small percentages of the principals believe in the usual arguments for set patterns of subjects for college entrance. Eighteen per cent believe that such a pattern disciplines the mind; 17 per cent, that it causes the pupils to learn what real work is; 12 per cent, that it has stood the test of time; 12 per cent, that it gives a basis for strong character because of the content studied; and 7 per cent, that it trains the memory. Further, almost a third of the principals believe that set patterns of subjects are good for predicting college suc-

cess, and three-fourths say they offer necessary preliminary training for the same subjects to be taken in college.

Table 3 presents the usual arguments against set patterns and the percentages of principals believing in these reasons. It is noted that

TABLE 3

REACTION OF TEXAS HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS TO THE USUAL ARGUMENTS
AGAINST SET PATTERNS OF SUBJECTS FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE

ARGUMENT AGAINST SET PATTERNS	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS AGREEING WITH ARGUMENT			TOTAL	
	Schools with Enrolments below 200	Schools with Enrolments of 200-499	Schools with Enrolments of 500 and Up	Number	Per Cent
Force pupils to take courses for which they have no interest or need.	58	85	55	198	83.5
Compel otherwise intelligent pupils to take certain courses for which they have no special aptitude.	38	71	44	153	64.6
Cause emotional disturbances because of pupils' inability to succeed in the usual pattern.	31	65	39	135	56.9
Absorb time that could be used for profitable courses.	41	51	37	129	54.4
Result in distaste for learning because of compulsory features.	34	58	33	125	52.7
Waste time on other material never to be used.	29	59	34	122	51.5
Result in antisocial attitudes because of pupils' lack of interest in certain required subjects.	26	57	31	114	48.1
Waste time on unmastered courses that are not continued in college. .	31	47	33	111	46.8
Research has shown that no one specific pattern has more value than any other combination of subjects so far as college is concerned.	16	30	21	67	28.3

Texas secondary-school principals react favorably to the usual arguments against set patterns.

A fairly large percentage of the principals think that they could supply the colleges with information of types which would be better indicators of potential college success than are marks on courses in

the set patterns. The kinds of information suggested, with percentages of the principals suggesting them, are as follows: personality traits (31 per cent); intelligence (23 per cent); interests (21 per cent); attitudes (14 per cent); study and work habits (12 per cent); apti-

TABLE 4
CHANGES IN CURRICULUMS THAT TEXAS HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS WOULD
MAKE IF THERE WERE NO SPECIFIC REQUIREMENTS
FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE

CHANGE DESIRED	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS WHO WOULD MAKE CHANGE			TOTAL	
	Schools with Enrol- ments below 200	Schools with Enrol- ments of 200-499	Schools with Enrol- ments of 500 and Up	Num- ber	Per Cent
Greater emphasis on:					
Additional vocational subjects. . . .	53	83	47	183	77.2
Economic problems in American living.	47	64	48	159	67.1
Personality development.	48	63	43	154	65.0
Social problems.	46	65	42	153	64.6
Work and study habits.	49	63	38	150	63.3
Leisure-time training.	41	55	28	124	52.3
Health education.	40	48	34	122	51.5
Music.	24	40	21	85	35.9
Art.	16	24	24	64	27.0
Other topics.	2	4	7	13	5.5
Changes in nature of, or emphasis on, certain subjects:					
Apply them to problems of every- day living.	55	72	40	167	70.5
Place less emphasis on factual in- formation and more on develop- ment of attitudes, appreciations, and understandings.	37	68	42	147	62.0
Fit them better to ability of pupils.	41	59	39	139	58.6
Integrate various fields.	34	34	34	102	43.0

tudes (10 per cent); family history (6 per cent); special abilities (5 per cent); activities (5 per cent); and health (4 per cent).

WHAT WOULD HAPPEN WITHOUT SPECIFIC PATTERNS?

More than four-fifths of the principals believe that pupils who expect to go to college would, if they had the opportunity, substitute

other courses for some of those specified for college entrance. Only 2 per cent feel that the pupils would not make any substitutions; the remainder are either doubtful or give no response.

The principals would make changes in their curriculums if there were no specific requirements for college entrance. The number who would drop certain subjects is comparatively small. Twenty-nine (12.2 per cent) would drop no subjects; one principal would drop all subjects. The percentages of those who would drop geometry, Algebra II, Latin, ancient and medieval history, algebra, foreign languages, solid geometry, or chemistry range from 7.6 to 3.8. Table 4 indicates that the changes would concern the nature of, and the emphasis on, certain subjects or aspects of education. More vocational subjects would be added by 77 per cent. Approximately 70 per cent would apply certain subjects to problems of everyday living. More than 60 per cent would give greater emphasis to economic and social problems of American life; personality development; work and study habits; and the development of attitudes, appreciations, and understandings.

NON-COLLEGE-PREPARATORY CURRICULUMS

A trend is noted toward the establishment of curriculums that do not prepare for college. Before 1930 there were such curriculums in only six (2.5 per cent) of the schools in this study, whereas by 1941 this number had increased to eighty-one (34 per cent).

Table 5 reveals the percentages of pupils who select the non-college-preparatory curriculum. Half of the schools having non-college-preparatory curriculums report that these curriculums are selected by fewer than 30 per cent of the pupils.

The following reasons were given by the principals for the pupils' selection of the non-college-preparatory curriculum: they do not expect to go to college (55 per cent); it meets their needs better (40 per cent); they have less ability (29 per cent); they are more interested in it (24 per cent); they follow advice of teacher, principal, or counselor (22 per cent) and advice of parents (10 per cent).

OTHER ASPECTS OF STUDY

This study determined the programs and the practices used in Texas high schools to develop abilities other than factual knowledge

that underlie success in college or elsewhere after graduation from high school. The principals also gave their opinions concerning the influence of college-entrance requirements on the development of these practices and programs. Lack of space prohibits the inclusion of these returns.

TABLE 5
REPLIES FROM 81 TEXAS HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS REPORTING
PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN NON-COLLEGE-
PREPARATORY CURRICULUMS

PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN NON-COL- LEGE-PREPAR- ATORY CUR- RICULUMS	NUMBER OF PRINCIPALS REPORTING			TOTAL	
	Schools with Enrolments below 200	Schools with Enrolments of 200-499	Schools with Enrolments of 500 and Up	Number	Per Cent
0- 9.....	3	8	8	19	8.0
10- 19.....	2	5	1	8	3.4
20- 29.....	1	6	8	15	6.3
30- 39.....	2	8	10	4.2
40- 49.....	1	2	2	5	2.1
50- 59.....	2	8	2	12	5.1
60- 69.....	3	2	2	7	3.0
70- 79.....	1	1	2	.8
80- 89.....	1	1	.4
90-100.....	1	1	.4
No response	1	1	0.4
Total..	13	35	33	81	34.2

CONCLUSIONS

From the tabulations given in this article the following conclusions may be drawn.

1. The percentage of high-school pupils who do not complete school is too large; more than two-thirds of the principals reported that from 10 to 39 per cent of the pupils drop out. The implication is that the curriculum is failing to meet the needs and interests of these pupils.

2. Large percentages of pupils who do not expect to go to college are taking the college-preparatory curriculum. Two-thirds of the 1939-40 graduates did not enter college. The pupils in 34 per cent of the schools have the opportunity to select non-college-prepara-

tory curriculums, but fewer than a third of those having the chance enrol in such curriculums.

3. The college-preparatory curriculum is not best for all the pupils. Whereas some principals think it is best for those who go to college, others have the vision of a curriculum that meets the needs of all and develops the aptitudes of all, whether or not the individuals continue their education in college.

4. The principals feel that college-entrance requirements impede their efforts to make the curriculum fit the needs of individuals and of society. The principals agree with the arguments against set patterns and would make changes in their curriculums if there were no specific patterns of requirement for college entrance.

GEOGRAPHICAL STUDY OF ALL GRADUATES OF AN IOWA HIGH SCHOOL

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*

SUMNER is a rather prosperous town located in the northeastern part of Iowa. Its population has grown from about 850 in 1892, the year in which the first high-school class graduated, to 1,750 in 1940, when the latest class included in this study was graduated.

TABLE 1

GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATIONS IN MAY, 1941, OF PERSONS GRADUATED
FROM SUMNER (IOWA) HIGH SCHOOL FROM
1892 TO 1940, INCLUSIVE

LOCATION	BOYS		GIRLS		BOYS AND GIRLS	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Home community.....	218	40.3	250	37.9	468	39.0
Iowa, outside home community.....	162	29.9	232	35.2	394	32.8
United States, outside Iowa	123	22.7	139	21.1	262	21.8
Foreign country.....	7	1.3	1	.2	8	.7
Deceased.....	29	5.4	33	5.0	62	5.2
Address unknown.....	2	0.4	4	0.6	6	0.5
Total.....	541	100.0	659	100.0	1,200	100.0

There are a few thriving industries in the town, and the surrounding land is very fertile. The people are honest, industrious, and thrifty. They are almost entirely of northern European ancestry, with many nationalities represented, and, in contrast with the people in their homelands, they live together harmoniously.

Table 1 shows where the twelve hundred persons who have graduated from the high school over a period of forty-nine years were located in May, 1941. The boys and girls are indicated separately in

this table, but, since the proportions are so similar, this division is not made in further tabulations.

The percentage of the graduates remaining in the home community (39 per cent) is about the same as that found by Whitlow¹ in a study of the Laramie, Wyoming, graduates of 1910-27; by Cloyd²

TABLE 2

GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION IN MAY, 1941, OF PERSONS GRADUATED FROM SUMNER (IOWA) HIGH SCHOOL DURING FOUR PERIODS

	GRADUATES OF 1892-99		GRADUATES OF 1900-19		GRADUATES OF 1920-29		GRADUATES OF 1930-40	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Location in May, 1941:								
Home community.....	9	15.2	81	28.2	120	37.0	258	48.8
Iowa, outside home com- munity.....	11	18.7	83	28.8	114	35.2	186	35.2
United States, outside Iowa.....	20	33.9	89	30.9	80	24.7	73	13.8
Foreign country.....	1	1.7	1	.3	1	.3	5	.9
Deceased.....	17	28.8	33	11.5	7	2.2	5	.9
Address unknown.....	1	1.7	1	0.3	2	0.6	2	0.4
Total.....	59	100.0	288	100.0	324	100.0	529	100.0
Population of community of residence in May, 1941:								
Under 15,000.....	28	68.3	160	63.0	230	73.0	396	75.9
15,000 or more.....	13	31.7	94	37.0	85	27.0	126	24.1
Total.....	41	100.0	254	100.0	315	100.0	522	100.0

in a study of pupils graduated from three Missouri high schools from 1922 to 1931; by Punke³ in an Illinois study reported in 1934; and by Hamlin⁴ in a study of the graduates of seven rural Iowa coun-

¹ C. M. Whitlow, "The Geographical Distribution of High-School Graduates," *School Review*, XXXIX (March, 1931), 213-16.

² Nina M. Cloyd, "A Follow-up of Graduates from Three Missouri High Schools," *High School Teacher*, X (February, 1934), 59-60.

³ Harold H. Punke, "Migration of High-School Graduates," *School Review*, XLII (January, 1934), 26-39.

⁴ Herbert M. Hamlin, "Residences in 1932 of Iowa High-School Graduates, 1921 to 1925," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVII (March, 1934), 524-28.

ties. With the exception of Punke's investigation, these earlier studies did not cover so many years as are covered in this investigation, but the conditions are similar enough to justify the belief that in general about two-fifths of the graduates in the areas represented

TABLE 3
DISTRIBUTION, BY STATE OR COUNTRY OF RESIDENCE IN 1941, OF PERSONS
GRADUATED FROM SUMNER (IOWA) HIGH SCHOOL FROM 1892 TO 1940

Location in May, 1941	Number of Graduates	Location in May, 1941	Number of Graduates
Alabama.....		New Mexico.....	2
Arizona.....	1	New York.....	5
Arkansas.....		North Carolina.....	
California.....	42	North Dakota.....	3
Colorado.....	4	Ohio.....	3
Connecticut.....		Oklahoma.....	
Delaware.....		Oregon.....	6
Florida.....	3	Pennsylvania.....	3
Georgia.....	2	Rhode Island.....	
Idaho.....	1	South Carolina.....	
Illinois.....	60	South Dakota.....	
Indiana.....	5	Tennessee.....	1
Iowa.....	862	Texas.....	5
Kansas.....	5	Utah.....	
Kentucky.....	1	Vermont.....	
Louisiana.....	4	Virginia.....	2
Maine.....		Washington.....	10
Maryland.....	1	West Virginia.....	
Massachusetts.....		Wisconsin.....	11
Michigan.....	8	Wyoming.....	
Minnesota.....	42	District of Columbia.....	1
Mississippi.....			
Missouri.....	10	Foreign countries:	
Montana.....	8	Canada.....	2
Nebraska.....	9	Cuba.....	1
Nevada.....	1	Hawaii.....	4
New Hampshire.....		Rumania.....	1
New Jersey.....	3		
		Total.....	1,132

remain in the home community. However, as Table 2 shows, the longer the period that has elapsed since graduation, the smaller the percentage of the graduates who remain.

The second largest proportion of the graduates, about a third, are in their home state but not in their home community. The third largest proportion, more than a fifth, are outside their home state

but in the United States. These figures are similar to those found by Hamlin and by Punke.

Table 2 also gives data on the size of the communities in which the graduates resided in 1941. Although fifteen thousand was arbitrarily taken as the division point, most of the graduates who were in cities with populations of more than fifteen thousand were in large cities, such as Chicago, Minneapolis, Los Angeles, and cities down to populations of about forty-five thousand.

Table 3 shows that Sumner graduates have gone into all sections of the United States with the exception of New England. However, by far the largest number, 862 or more than 70 per cent of all graduates, have remained in Iowa. The states to which the largest numbers of graduates have migrated are those which are contiguous to Iowa or states located on the Pacific coast.

This study of the geographical distribution of high-school graduates has certain educational implications: (1) The course of study should not be based strictly on local conditions but should consider state and national conditions to the extent that graduates migrate, that is, about 40 per cent of it should concern local matters; 35 per cent, state (plus local); and about 25 per cent, national affairs. The state and national education would, of necessity, need to be general in nature. (2) There is a clear indication of the need for more state-wide and nation-wide equalization of the costs of education.

THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL ON THE AIR

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*

MODERN high schools accept participation by pupils in radio productions as a great help in promoting the purposes of secondary education. In arranging opportunities for actual participation, school officials have, from the beginning, found it necessary and helpful to co-operate with local commercial stations, and, in the programs which allowed Minneapolis senior high school pupils to broadcast their own programs, this type of co-operation has been carried out to a high degree. In most cases the commercial stations have educational directors of their own who are anxious to experiment and to arrange high-school programs on the air in co-operation with various members of a school staff. Educators have much to learn from the practical experience of radio people, who in many cases are young men with memories of recent school experience. It is equally important that commercial representatives understand school people and their educational aims in promoting school broadcasting.

SUMMARY OF A YEAR'S ACTIVITIES IN BROADCASTING

As an example of the type of co-operation that is carried on between the schools and the local radio stations, a summary of broadcasting activities carried on in Minneapolis during 1940-41 is given. Last year more than a hundred programs were presented over the seven local Minneapolis stations. Approximately a thousand pupils participated in actual broadcasting, and the major part of the work was done by radio-workshop classes in Grade XII. These elective classes meet five hours a week to study the problems of broadcasting and script-writing.

Twenty programs were broadcast under the theme "Young America Creates Expression." These programs demonstrated to the public how modern high schools provide opportunity for self-expression,

initiative, and creative ability. Twelve programs were presented by senior high school pupils in social-studies classes, who discussed timely problems, such as "America's Health," "Working for a Permanent Peace," and "Schools for Everybody." The discussion by the pupils followed a presentation of these topics by experts from the main studios of the Columbia Broadcasting System. Music teachers in the senior high schools arranged for eleven musical programs based on class work and demonstrating their product with choral and instrumental selections.

The local university radio station co-operated closely with the Board of Education in arranging programs and in offering its facilities. Eight programs with topics chosen by the teachers were carried on by the radio-workshop teachers. In addition, about five programs were scheduled by requesting time from the university station whenever the teacher felt he had a suitable program.

In co-operation with the American Legion Auxiliary three programs were given by high-school pupils on the general theme of "Democracy in Education."

Last year one station arranged to have a series of eighteen sports broadcasts given by high-school boys from the various radio workshops. The boys gathered sports news, edited it, and announced it under the direction of a sports broadcaster in the local station. A similar program in which senior high school girls reported their activities throughout the city was also arranged. The junior high school was represented by ten programs, which grew out of activities in social-studies classes.

In co-operation with the police department, thirteen junior high schools broadcast safety programs on alternate weeks throughout the year. These programs were seasonal in character and were carried on by the ninth-grade classes in community civics.

NECESSITY FOR UNDERSTANDING THE PURPOSE OF SCHOOL BROADCASTING

The foregoing description of school programs gives some idea of the extent of activities that can be developed in co-operation with local broadcasting stations in a large city. However, school people, in promoting these activities, must keep certain fundamental educa-

tional principles in mind. Continued expansion of pupil participation in radio productions is not justifiable if for any reason this expansion does not contribute to the best educational interests of children. As has been said before, school people have a great deal to learn from the practical experience of persons in radio, and teachers who have had the opportunity to work with these individuals have welcomed many helpful suggestions.

It must be remembered that commercial broadcasting and radio productions in general are conceived as entertainment rather than as educational experience, but the writer believes that the line between these two fields of activity should not be too rigid. However, it is altogether possible that school people's conception of radio participation will be quite different from the conception of persons actually in radio work unless a clear understanding of the purpose of student broadcasting is reached. We do not wish to have radio participation fall into the bad ways that have sometimes characterized the production of class plays, winning football teams, or band contests. Teachers and radio stations who insist that nothing can go over the air unless it is highly polished and equal to professional presentations offer the school no alternative but to set aside an unfair amount of time and energy in the development of radio broadcasting. We should have participation in radio productions on the part of young people, but the radio-listening public, as well as the commercial stations, must realize that the pupils come to the radio stations prepared in terms of a fair amount of time and energy which can justifiably be laid aside in an already busy school program.

POSSIBLE SOLUTION TO THE PROBLEM OF DEGREE OF EXCELLENCE EXPECTED

The solution to the problem of adequate preparation is often stated as follows: Allow the children to broadcast freely over the public-address system and various other microphone arrangements within the school building, but permit them to broadcast to the public only those polished programs which will impress listeners with the efficiency and competence of our radio teachers. This suggestion only increases the problem by handing over to the schools a responsi-

bility which will sacrifice the individual's program in order to produce the polished performance.

Is it too much to expect that the public will welcome a type of school program which represents fairly a typical activity within a school schedule? Must we always withhold our applause of young people who cannot in their busy lives produce performances equal to those of professional actors and actresses? The writer prefers to think that radio participation on the part of pupils is a phase of general education and that the experience of using a microphone is a natural means of reaching the public with typical activities of our high schools.

Those persons most concerned with secondary education today have stressed as a major point the importance of developing a general point of view on the part of the pupils. This objective can best be reached by giving pupils a rich and varied program. Ahead of children lies a life of specialization. During their school life it is very necessary that they engage in many activities which will give them insight into various fields without necessarily prompting them to develop a specialty in that field. Thus they gain wide appreciation and information concerning our great and complex American life. It is quite possible that a select few of these pupils, after having some interesting experiences in broadcasting, will become interested in radio work as a specialization worth seeking. However, we cannot limit participation to only those boys and girls who are planning to have careers in radio. It has already been stated that approximately a thousand pupils participated in radio broadcasting last year in Minneapolis. These pupils represent only about 3 per cent of the senior⁸ high school population. If, as we hope, participation in radio broadcasting is to contribute to the general purpose of education, we cannot be satisfied with this limited participation. Radio stations could well afford to develop wider participation as an aid in building a much better appreciation of radio itself.

The writer is not in a position to say that persons in radio stations, because of the nature of their work, are opposed to this position. However, he feels that from time to time they are concerned about school programs in terms of the perfect performance rather than in

terms of the educational experiences afforded pupils. Undoubtedly the public in the long run will welcome opportunities to hear children in typical situations rather than in situations exemplifying polished performances. Generally speaking, radio broadcasting is in a pioneer stage. At this early date it should be possible for persons representing both the schools and the commercial radio stations to decide together that the public really expects from school children only a fair presentation of the part that radio is playing in their lives and not an exaggerated picture of perfect performance.

This article is not a plea for the presentation of mediocre programs over the air. Stress should be placed on the importance of the teachers' responsibility in helping children produce the best programs possible—but always within the limits of time and energy expended. This criterion of excellence might well be extended to band performances and to class plays. There is no place in the school program for a kind of activity which demands such great amounts of time and energy from teachers and pupils that the general purposes of education are neglected.

It is hoped that this article will call attention to a problem which is more than local. The writer is not suggesting that insurmountable differences exist between some persons in radio work and some educators. It is his sincere hope that participation in radio productions on the part of schools will expand and be refined but that this participation will be used as an integral part of a well-planned educational program in the high school and not as another big side show.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM¹

PAUL W. TERRY
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THE forty-five references that follow include twenty-seven articles in seventeen professional magazines; four pamphlets; eight books or monographs; and six articles in, and one issue of, a bulletin. Most of the references are concerned with statistical data or with the discussion of fundamental problems. As in previous years, however, it appears profitable also to include in the list a number of articles describing ingenious efforts to solve well-known problems or unusually resourceful supervision of a common type of activity. A substantial amount of attention continues to be given in the professional literature to the demands of this field of educational work.

310. ALLEN, GENIEVE M. "A Secondary-School Radio Workshop," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXV (April, 1941), 49-52.

Describes the organization of pupils from three high schools in Springfield, Massachusetts, who volunteered for the production of an extensive variety of programs which were broadcast weekly over a local commercial station.

311. BELL, DONALD J. "Principals Tackle Football," *Nation's Schools*, XXVIII (July, 1941), 51-52.

A valuable report of the opinions, expressed as returns on a questionnaire, of 330 California school officers concerning a number of salient questions and problems that arise in connection with interscholastic football.

312. BISHOP, BETTY. "High-School Dramatics," *Alabama School Journal*, LIX (November, 1941), 11.

A thoughtful attack on the practice of selecting plays of inferior or dangerous emotional quality for performance by high-school pupils.

¹ See also Item 497 (Strang) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1941, number of the *School Review*, Item 502 (Scott and Dayman) in the October, 1941, number, and Item 105 (Mason) in the February, 1942, number of the same journal, and Item 87 (Masters) in the February, 1942, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

313. CADY, H. KEITH. "Hands Off the Student Council: Our Policy in South Milwaukee," *Clearing House*, XVI (September, 1941), 15-18.
Describes the efforts made in the junior-senior high school at South Milwaukee, Wisconsin, to give the council the fullest possible freedom of action and the beneficial results of this policy.
314. CORBIN, RICHARD K. "The English Field Day," *English Journal*, XXX (May, 1941), 391-95.
Tells how eleven hundred pupils from forty-seven high schools in eastern New York, Long Island, and Connecticut came together for a day of co-operative consideration of the problem of improving their use of the vernacular, including such uses as are made in several extra-curriculum activities.
315. *Democracy in the Summer Camp*. United States Office of Education, Education and National Defense Series, Pamphlet No. 23, 1941. Pp. vi+20.
A valuable discussion for sponsors of camps who are interested in the practices that furnish democratic training to boys and girls.
316. DETJEN, MARY E. FORD, and DETJEN, ERVIN W. *Home-Room Guidance Programs for the Junior High School Years*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940. Pp. xvi+510.
A manual concerning organization and activities, designed primarily for home rooms conducted as classes but equally useful for home rooms which are managed by student officers and in which educational guidance has an important place.
317. DIEFENDORF, J. W. "Extra-curricular Activities and Related Business Training," *School Activities*, XII (May, 1941), 339-41.
A thoughtful discussion of the value to pupils of correct training in the handling of the funds of student organizations, together with a brief description of a simple procedure.
318. "Future Teachers of America Going Forward," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXX (November, 1941), 250.
A brief account of a society for high-school and college students in training for teaching, which is sponsored by the National Education Association. Describes organization, activities, progress to date, and sources of information.
319. HAMPEL, CORA E. "Students Write and Produce Their Own Operetta," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVI (February, 1941), 113-15.
Tells how pupils of the high school at Berkeley, California, prepare the compositions which they "put on" annually and how they organize many groups of pupils throughout the school to make various contributions.
320. HEISLER, ELEANOR L. O. "Beginning the Young Scientists Club," *Science Education*, XXV (March, 1941), 155-58.
An account of the organization, activities, and broad interests of an energetic club in an elementary school at Rochelle Park, New Jersey.

321. HERTS, COLEMAN M. "An Experience in Democracy," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXIII (February, 1941), 221-22.

Describes briefly the organization and activities of a mountain camp in the vicinity of Denver, which is maintained for "problem" boys and which represents a co-operative effort on the part of a number of social agencies and the public schools.

322. HOLLINGSHEAD, ARTHUR D. *Guidance in Democratic Living*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1941. Pp. xiv+260.

Presents many ideas of value to the sponsor of student activities, including discussion of the practical management of groups of pupils and of the theories of profitable association in a democratically conducted school.

323. JOHNSTON, EDGAR G. (editor). "Vitalizing Student Activities in the Secondary School: A Discussion of Principles and Practices of the Student Activity Program," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXV (December, 1941), 1-150.

A substantial attack on pressing problems in this field, with suggestions for solutions. The headings within the chapters consist largely of questions commonly raised by teachers and administrative officers. Considers all types of pupil activities.

324. JOHNSTON, EDGAR G. (chairman); EMMONS, OWEN A.; JONES, GALEN; WELLWOOD, JOHN E.; and BACKUS, BERTIE. "How Democratic Are Student Activities in Our Schools?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXV (February, 1941), 45-55.

States nine "basic principles" and ten "specific recommendations" based on expressed attitudes of school, local, state, and national associations toward extra-curriculum activities. Includes sampling comments derived from the reactions of discussion groups in twenty-five states.

325. KELLEY, EARL C. *Student Co-operation*. New York: National Self Government Committee, Inc. (80 Broadway), 1941. Pp. 20.

A substantial discussion of the fundamental principles underlying student government, together with numerous suggestions for improvement, the latter being based on findings from a study of 152 constitutions and from a questionnaire on practices returned by approximately eighteen hundred schools.

326. KENNEDY, E. G. "Some Facts about Participation in Extra-curricular Activities," *School Activities*, XII (February, 1941), 221-23, 242.

A statistical study of the relation of intelligence quotient, average personality quotient, and scholarship index to participation on the part of 195 members of a high-school graduating class.

327. LAING, HARLOW E. "Pupil Bus Officers Work for Safety in Transportation," *Clearing House*, XVI (September, 1941), 12-14.

Describes a plan that has been in operation for seventeen years at the Lincoln Consolidated School, Ypsilanti, Michigan, by which an organization of pupils maintains discipline and promotes safety on school busses.

328. LAUER, A. R. "Problems of the School Patrol," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXIII (February, 1941), 230-35.

Describes safety-patrol plans in a number of schools, gives arguments pro and con, reports statistically the returns made by thirty-five educators to a questionnaire on the subject, and appends a list of twenty-nine references.

329. LEONHART, JAMES C. "Journalism Students 'Radio' Their Way to Mastery of English," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XVIII (May-June, 1941), 211-14.

Describes a successful method of interesting the members of a journalism class in good English by the use of a feigned "news-casting" situation as it was developed at the Baltimore City College. Gives brief excerpts from numerous sample "broadcasts."

330. *Marks of Good Camping*. Report of Workshop on Camp Standards Conducted by the American Camping Association. New York: Association Press (347 Madison Avenue), 1941. Pp. 86.

A manual on the counseling staff, administrative practices, health and sanitation, safety, etc., presented in the form of standards by means of which sponsors of a camp may judge the values accruing to the campers.

331. *The Milwaukee Public Schools Make Americans*. Eighty-second Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Milton C. Potter, Superintendent of Schools, 1941. Pp. 52.

An unusual report, presenting its data briefly, graphically, cogently, and appealingly. Throughout the volume, reference is made to extra-curriculum activities of various kinds. Offers valuable suggestions of good publicity methods for this and other types of school work.

332. MOOG, A. J. "Bicycling Made Safe," *Nation's Schools*, XXVIII (August, 1941), 55-56.

Tells how a bicycle club, safety patrol, student council, home-room groups, and other pupil organizations work together in the high school at Eveleth, Minnesota, to keep bicycles in good condition, thereby preventing accidents.

333. NANCARROW, J. E. "The School Interprets Democracy through the School's Program: Administration and Activities," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXV (October, 1941), 23-28.

Discusses, among other questions, the place of student government in a program designed to interpret democracy.

334. O'ROURKE, L. J. *Your Government Today and Tomorrow*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941. Pp. xx+710.

A textbook on civics which includes a variety of materials for the use of classes organized as civics clubs.

335. PALZER, EDWARD. "Solecisms of Forensic Speech," *School Activities*, XIII (November, 1941), 93-95.
A valuable discussion of the factors to which attention must be given by pupils wishing to become good debaters and of the common errors made by debaters.
336. PERSON, RUTH. "Junior High School Mathematics Clubs," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXIV (May, 1941), 228-29.
Gives useful information on the kinds of mathematical materials that are good for intellectual recreation and entertainment and on the sources from which these materials may be obtained by advisers.
337. PRICE, LOUISE. *Creative Group Work on the Campus*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 830. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. xvi+438.
A valuable study of student activities at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, and at Stanford University. Special attention is given to the promotion of co-operative planning, to individual development, and to records which describe these processes.
338. "A Realistic Approach to Training for Citizenship," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXV (October, 1941), 41-42.
A brief account of the organization and activities of the National Capital School Visitors Council, which in the spring of 1941 brought two hundred secondary-school leaders from sixty-four public and private schools in sixteen states to Washington to see the national government in action.
339. "Report of the Activities of a Student Council in Ohio," *School Review*, XLIX (September, 1941), 490.
A brief description of an unusual annual report published by the student council of the Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
340. ROSENFELD, HARRY N. *Liability for School Accidents*. Sponsored by the Center for Safety Education, New York University, in Co-operation with the New York University School of Law. New York: Harper & Bros., 1940. Pp. xviii+220.
Principals and sponsors of pupil organizations will find in this book valuable information concerning liability for accidents and other damage to pupil members of such organizations.
341. ROSS, LAURENCE W. "The Student Election," *High School Journal*, XXIV (December, 1941), 346-51.
Describes the procedures employed in the senior high school at Greenville, South Carolina, in electing members of the student council so that the entire student body gains a substantial amount of training in the democratic process of selecting leaders.

342. ROTHWELL, ANGUS B. "Spreading the Teacher Extra-curricular Load," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXV (April, 1941), 57-60.
Describes plans used in several schools to distribute more equitably among members of the faculty the burdens connected with the sponsorship of various student organizations.
343. "Scholastic Journalism," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXIII (April, 1941), 281-307.
The entire issue of the journal deals with scholastic journalism, including the "editorial comment" and the special articles, as it is treated in many phases by various writers.
344. SPENCE, LUCILE. "Block Beautiful: Pupil Club Changes a Community," *Clearing House*, XVI (September, 1941), 3-7.
Shows how a club effected substantial improvement in the appearance, sanitary conditions, and social atmosphere of an underprivileged community in New York City.
345. STRANG, RUTH. *Group Activities in College and Secondary School*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1941. Pp. xiv+362.
A manual containing the results of research in this field. Discusses objectives in the form of types of behavior desired and the procedures available for attaining them, includes extensive lists of references, and emphasizes the tendency of extra-curriculum activities to become part of the curriculum.
346. TAYLOR, CLYDE W. "Influences of Newspaper Routes," *School Review*, XLIX (January, 1941), 57-59.
Compares statistically the scholastic and citizenship records of 187 newsboys with the records of other boys who were enrolled in the Union High School of Phoenix, Arizona, and gives outcomes as judged by the boys themselves.
347. TRUMP, J. LLOYD. "An Evaluation of Extra-class Activities," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XV (January, 1941), 288-94.
A report of the Committee on Curriculum Trends of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Uses returns from questionnaires filled out by 878 schools to report trends of practices with respect to major problems of supervision, such as management of contests, keeping of records, development of leadership, accounting procedures, etc.
348. TRUMP, J. LLOYD. "An Evaluation of Extra-curricular Activities in North Central Association High Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVI (October, 1941), 196-204.
Compares the practices of nearly one thousand schools belonging to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, as determined by returns from questionnaires and a more intensive study of five schools. Includes a set of sound principles of organization and administration and gives recommendations based thereon.

349. VERTREES, RUTH. "We Organize a Camera Club," *Clearing House*, XV (January, 1941), 286-88.

Offers numerous practical and ingenious suggestions on how to organize a group of youngsters interested in photography and how to keep them busy.

350. WILLETT, G. W. "An Evaluation of the Extra-curricular Program in a Suburban High School," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVI (October, 1941), 204-7.

Reports returns from a questionnaire filled out by pupils, teachers, alumni, and parents of the Lyons Township High School at La Grange, Illinois, concerning extent of participation and other factors affecting the status of pupil activities in this school.

351. WILLIAMS, DAGNY. "Tremendous Possibilities Ahead for Student Radio Journalism," *Scholastic Editor*, XX (May, 1941), 181, 199.

A thoughtful discussion of the value of radio-broadcasting activities as a supplement to the work of school journalism groups, together with a description of what is being done by the high school at Grand Forks, North Dakota.

352. WILLIAMS, DON G. "Visual Aids Club: It Serves Both Youth and the School," *Clearing House*, XVI (October, 1941), 77-79.

Describes the activities and the plan of organization of a group of boys who were carefully selected as needing this opportunity, who had competence therefor, and who made moving pictures effectively available to all classes in the high school at Great Falls, Montana.

353. WILLIAMS, SIDNEY J., and CHARTERS, W. W. *Safety*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. Pp. viii+452.

A manual and guidebook to safety designed for the use of high-school classes in this subject. Contains valuable safety material for pupil organizations.

354. WILSON, HOWARD E. "Democracy in School Life," *Civic Leader*, VIII (January 20, 1941), 1-4.

A substantial presentation in the form of a guide sheet, readily usable for discussion by the sponsors of student organizations, of a number of critical issues and of pertinent means by which pupils can be trained in democratic ways of life through daily, out-of-class experiences.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

THE PRESENT STATUS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.—Within recent years several new introductory textbooks have been written for teachers in training for employment in secondary schools. These textbooks have varied widely in organization and content and, to some extent, in immediate purpose. Most of them have been written on the assumption that they would provide the initial introduction of the neophyte to the general institution of the secondary school. A few were intended as a culminating overview of secondary education, to be offered near the close of the initial period of teacher training. The authors of the textbook under review¹ appear to think of it as fulfilling the primary function of introducing the teacher in training to the broad field of secondary education and, in addition, as providing a means by which "active teachers and administrators" may critically evaluate their policies and practices.

Although the mechanical organization is traditional in pattern, the organization and the scope of the content are somewhat unique. There is a series of chapters, designated independently without formal grouping into divisions or parts. Closer inspection, however, suggests a possible internal grouping of chapters into at least three major divisions. Chapters i-vii, or approximately a third of the content, are devoted to a consideration of the nature and purpose of secondary education in the United States—its organization, growth, and relation to the total pattern of institutional education in America. Chapters viii-xv, comprising half the content, center attention on the curriculum of the school. Chapters xvi-xix, approximately a fifth of the content, appear as a somewhat miscellaneous group of chapters, treating in turn the topics of guidance, the teacher, community relations, and trends and issues.

In general the authors reveal a wide acquaintance with the literature basic to each phase of the broad subject discussed. They have drawn heavily on contemporary source materials and have used footnote documentation extensively. Statistical materials used have been taken from the most recent data available. A distinctive feature is the picture which is given of contemporary secondary education in European countries. The treatments of education in Russia, Germany, Italy, Denmark, and in our American neighbor, Mexico, are exceptionally good for a textbook of this kind. The authors proclaim the functional organization of content as a unique feature of this book. For example, a complete

¹ Rudyard K. Bent and Henry H. Kronenberg, *Principles of Secondary Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1941. Pp. xiv+594. \$3.00.

discussion of the historical development of secondary education is not to be found in any one place, but phases of the secondary school are treated historically in connection with various topics in different sections of the book. There are obvious advantages in this method of treatment if well done, for it contributes to the development of unity and relationship in educational concepts.

Some weaknesses in the book as an introduction to secondary education should be noted. A reading of the text leaves one with an inadequate picture of the historical origins of our American educational system, without which it is impossible fully to understand contemporary secondary-school problems. The data that are available are found in several different places in the book. The praiseworthy attempt to organize the content of the book functionally has contributed both to this lack of clarity and to considerable duplication. The treatment of the topic of individual differences offers a good example of this difficulty. In chapter viii, "Core Curriculum: Basis for Selecting Activities," the authors marshal data to show variations in sex maturation, mental development, and other aspects of individual differences. Again, in chapter xi, "Providing for Individual Differences through Electives: Academic," ten pages are devoted to the causes and the extent of individual differences. In an obvious effort to avoid duplication, the treatment in the latter chapter, although restating in a different way some of the essential ideas of the earlier chapter, completely ignores what has been said previously on the subject. As a result it is doubtful that the student would get a clear and unified picture of the "causes" and the "extent" of individual differences. It may be seriously questioned whether, in an introductory textbook, devoting half the space to a consideration of the curriculum is justifiable. This practice forces omission, or inadequate treatment, of many important topics which should receive careful consideration in a textbook of this kind.

The volume is a mixture of many worthy features and some faults. Persons considering the adoption of a textbook for an introductory course in secondary education should give it careful consideration either as basic or as supplementary material.

NELSON L. BOSSING

University of Minnesota

THE NEW STUDENT IN COLLEGE.—Within the past few years an increasing number of publications have appeared in the field of student personnel work, many of which have dealt with the problem of orienting the student in college. A book¹ has recently been published which focuses the attention of both college and high-school administrators and counselors on the problems of adjustment faced by the transfer student as well as the Freshman college student. In their

¹ C. Gilbert Wrenn and Reginald Bell, *Student Personnel Problems: A Study of New Students and Personnel Services*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1942. Pp. xiv+236. \$2.00.

Preface the authors point out that, because little has been written for the college faculty adviser and the college administrator, it is their "hope that this brief volume will be the beginning of a fulfilment of this need" (p. vi). The book may also be of help to advisers of high-school Seniors and to secondary-school administrators who wish to reduce the college mortality rate of the students they send on.

The book is based on a study of the adjustment problems of more than five thousand Freshmen and transfer students in thirteen colleges and universities. The answers given by these students on a check list of fifty items are analyzed and discussed under four general sections, which comprise the body of the book: (1) analysis of the general adjustment problems set forth in the check list, (2) analysis of vocational choices, (3) analysis of reasons for difficulty with courses in different fields, and (4) analysis of students' suggestions for the development of personnel work in their own colleges.

In analyzing the adjustment problems of new students in college, the authors discuss the types of problems most frequently found, the frequency of the most difficult problems, the problems of men as compared with those of women, the problems encountered by Freshmen and those confronting transfer students, and the problems found in various types of colleges.

In chapter v, which presents an analysis of the problems of vocational choice, it is clearly pointed out that the selection of a vocation is a problem about which the new student is vitally concerned. College administrators will be interested in the discussion of the choice of a major subject of study as it relates to vocational choice. The chapter calls attention to the need and the opportunity for co-operation between the high school and the college in articulating the program of guidance for the individual student.

Chapter vi deals with the problems of educational adjustment and analyzes (1) data concerning "the adjustment problems faced by students in the various academic and professional fields" and (2) "the information given by students relative to their 'most difficult' courses during the quarter or semester preceding the inquiry, and their statements as to the underlying causes of their difficulty" (p. 101). It is apparent throughout the discussion that the adjustment program has two major concerns: the adjustment of the individual to the institution and the adjustment of the institution to the individual.

Probably the most important contribution of the book lies in the last two chapters, both of which are concerned with "The Improvement of Student Personnel Procedures in College and in Secondary School." In these chapters the adjustment needs of the students, as revealed in the study around which the book is written, are drawn together; a program of personnel service is outlined; and the responsibility of both the high school and the college in developing the program is pointed out.

Throughout the book the authors have forcefully brought to the attention of the reader the fact that student personnel services are not fads and needless

appendages to be attached to the educational program. In reading this book, one finds it difficult to escape the realization that the counselor functions at the heart of the educational process and that the service of the counselor is essential if the college is to meet effectively the needs of the student.

The writers have included a bibliography which is useful to those interested in personnel problems and to which frequent reference is made throughout the book. Two appendixes provide helpful reference for counselors: one gives the grouping of vocational workers in broad fields, and the other indicates academic majors grouped into broad fields. A third appendix presents in tabular form the detailed data derived from the check list, and a fourth gives a sample check list used in the study. An index is included.

The volume should be of practical interest to counselors and administrators in colleges and in high schools. It may be found an appropriate textbook for courses in the personnel field. Its contribution to the field of personnel literature lies in the clearness with which it brings out (1) the peculiar adjustment problems faced by the new student in college and (2) the role that the high school and the college may play in developing an articulated educational program designed to eliminate many of these adjustment problems.

DONALD M. MACKENZIE

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DURATION OF EARLY EMPLOYMENT FOR YOUTH.—Urgent appeals have been made during the past ten years that educational programs be readjusted with the view of increasing the chances for young people to secure employment within a reasonable time after completing or withdrawing from high school. While the schools are not to be charged with responsibility for conditions which limit the number of jobs to be filled, the relatively high percentage of unemployment among the youths just out of high school may be due, in part, to the failure of the schools to prepare these young people properly to find and retain appropriate employment. Much careful research and planning have been stimulated by the desire to discover and to institute measures which may remove some of the restrictions to normal occupational experience for school-leaving youths. Among the notable examples of well-directed efforts to find ways of improving the conditions governing the employment of this age group is the Occupational Adjustment Study of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. The general report of this investigation was published in the association's *Bulletin* for November, 1940. One of the subsidiary reports,¹ re-

¹ C. Darl Long, *School-leaving Youth and Employment: Some Factors Associated with the Duration of Early Employment of Youth Whose Formal Education Ended at High School Graduation or Earlier*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 845. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941. Pp. viii+84. \$1.60.

cently published, provides an extended analysis of the important but somewhat neglected aspect of the work experiences of young people, namely, tenure during the early years of employment.

The specific aim of this research was to determine the characteristics of youth which are significantly associated with success in holding jobs secured after leaving high school. The subjects of the study include about a thousand boys and girls who graduated or withdrew from the high schools of six selected towns in Connecticut and New Jersey between June, 1934, and June, 1938. From school records and interviews with teachers and with the subjects themselves and from inquiries among parents, employers, public officials, and youth-serving agencies of the communities, trained investigators assembled data pertaining to the social and economic background, the academic records, and the occupational planning of these young people, as well as their successes and failures in the early years of their employment.

Using acceptable statistical techniques, the author of this report reveals the extent to which various personal and social factors were found to be associated with successful experience in the kinds of jobs secured by these young people immediately or within a few years after leaving school. The analysis indicates that, within the experience of these young people, continuous employment after leaving school is only remotely associated with the qualities required for successful academic achievement in the schools attended. On the other hand, it was found that boys and girls who had part-time jobs during their last two years in high school were significantly more successful than were other boys and girls in holding their early full-time jobs. It is also noted that intelligent attitudes toward occupational opportunities and responsibilities were consistently associated with favorable tenure records in the early years of regular employment. However, the schools' estimates of probable future occupational success correlated negatively with the later employment records of their former pupils.

There are other significant findings with which the student of present-day youth problems will be seriously concerned. Investigations of the type of the general study of which Long's searching inquiry is a part are being reported from time to time, usually with serious interpretative questioning of the appropriateness and the effectiveness of the program of institutional training through which the youth of the land seek induction into the successful levels of occupational experience. This report does not reveal the certain course for improving the training that our secondary schools are now providing, but it suggests some of the vital relationships between certain types of experience in high-school years and later employment status which should not be disregarded in the efforts being made to provide more effectively for the occupational adjustment of youth.

NELSON B. HENRY

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PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT FOR FRESHMEN.—As college and university enrolments have increased and the student population has become more and more heterogeneous, the need for guidance of individual students, especially those beginning college work, has become increasingly evident. Today most colleges recognize this need, and many of them are attempting to meet it, with various degrees of success. Some institutions rely wholly on individual counseling and guidance, some make use of orientation courses, and some try to combine the two. Where orientation courses are used, one criticism often encountered is that adequate reading and study materials are not available in a form that can be readily assimilated by college Freshmen. As if in answer to this criticism, a few textbooks adaptable to such courses have been published from time to time, and recently another¹ has made its appearance.

In his introductory statement the author explains the purpose of the book by stating that he "has sought to give guidance and information to the beginner in college in a way that will serve him not only during his academic years but also in the years to follow" (p. iii). Expanding this idea, he adds that he has not attempted to give answers to all questions "that arise about life in college and the wider experiences which follow. However, if the principles gathered together here are learned and put into practice, there is more than a fair chance that the student may reach that goal of everyone—happiness" (p. iii). Professor Lewis M. Terman, in the Editor's Introduction, states this same aim somewhat differently. He says: "A central purpose of the book is to cultivate in the student the will to self-analysis, a readiness to assess objectively and unemotionally his abilities, his disabilities, his motivations, and his customary patterns of adjustment" (p. xi).

There is little in the book that will be new to the average adult reader, but to youth, for whom it is written, it will in all probability be a source of much information and inspiration and will act as a stimulus for serious thinking, self-analysis, and personal adjustment. The volume may be described as a simple and elementary treatise in the fields of psychology, education, mental hygiene, biology, philosophy, and sociology. Following are some of the topics considered in the fifteen chapters: student needs, learning, study, reading, planning, thinking, personality, health, sex, marriage, and vocations. That an author could cover such an array of topics in one book may seem at first glance impossible. However, it is only fair to say that this book is not in the least forbidding. The author has succeeded admirably in drawing essential data from all the fields mentioned, in integrating them, and in so organizing his material that the finished product is a most readable and interesting book.

To persons who refuse to admit the value of orientation courses for Freshmen,

¹ Lowry S. Howard, *The Road Ahead: A College Orientation and Guidance Book*. Edited and with introduction by Lewis M. Terman. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1941. Pp. xiv+402. \$2.00.

this book will prove to be an anathema, not because of the book itself, but because of the purpose for which it is designed. By those individuals who are interested in such courses, the book will undoubtedly be well received. It is so written that the least gifted Freshmen should be able to read it without a great deal of difficulty and the most gifted should not be bored. Terman characterizes the book very well when he says:

[It] is scientifically sound, but it is not so coldly scientific as to be impersonal. The spirit of the author can always be sensed—his deep interest in the problems of youth, his sincerity and enthusiasm. This quality enables him to get and to keep in rapport with the reader. He does not preach, and he does not talk down to his audience [p. xii].

As has already been stated, this book is designed for use by college Freshmen in an orientation course. It will prove valuable for this purpose, especially if the course is combined with, and is a part of, a definite, well-organized guidance and counseling program. Although not intended for high-school pupils, this book should also be useful in orientation courses for high-school Juniors and Seniors. In fact, because of the great number of such courses in high school as compared with those in college, it is probable that in the former it will receive its widest acceptance.

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